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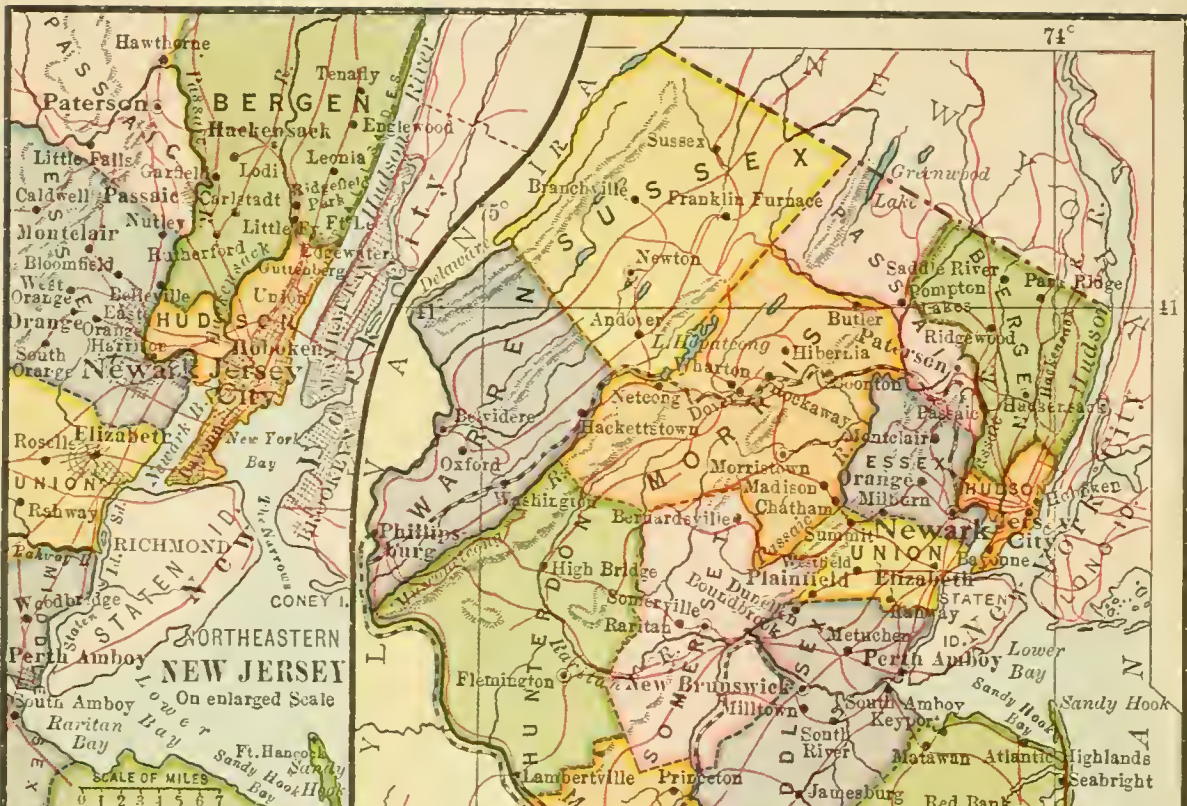
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A BRIEF HISTORY OF NEW JERSEY

BY

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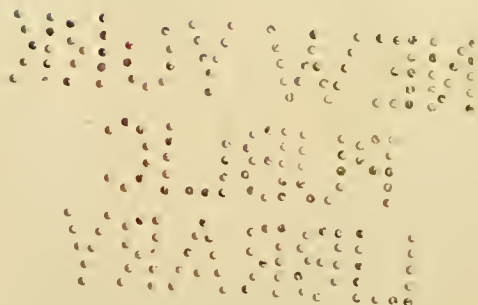
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INTRODUCTION

It is the aim of the following pages to make known the most important events in the history of New Jersey, from the first settlement to the present time. With so great an array of authorities at command, the task has been largely that of grouping and condensing the work of others.

The question that faced us at the beginning was whether to write merely a brief *story* that would give a general knowledge of the history of the State, or to add names, dates, and other particulars. In the latter case the work not only would furnish interesting reading, but also would serve for instruction. After consulting with many in whose judgment we have faith, we adopted a middle course. The body of the work aims to inform as well as to entertain; but such statistics as are given appear in the Appendix. If there can be no excellence without labor, then children and adults cannot learn history simply by being entertained with a story which omits the names and dates that are necessary for a comprehension of real history.

We consider ourselves fortunate in the help that we have received in our labor. Henry C. Buchanan, State Librarian, John Cotton Dana, of the Newark Free Library, and E. W. Miller, of the Jersey City Free Library, not only placed all the resources of their libraries at our disposal, but also aided us with wise suggestions. The New

Jersey Historical Society has kindly given us access to its many valuable documents and volumes. Specially helpful have been Francis Bazley Lee's "New Jersey as a Colony and as a State," and the Revolutionary researches of the late Adjutant General Stryker.

Acknowledgments are due, also, to Hon. C. J. Baxter, State Superintendent of Public Instruction; to Alfred Reed, Justice of the Supreme Court; to Sumner C. Kimball, Superintendent of the Life-saving Service; and to various city clerks and county superintendents.

E. S. E.

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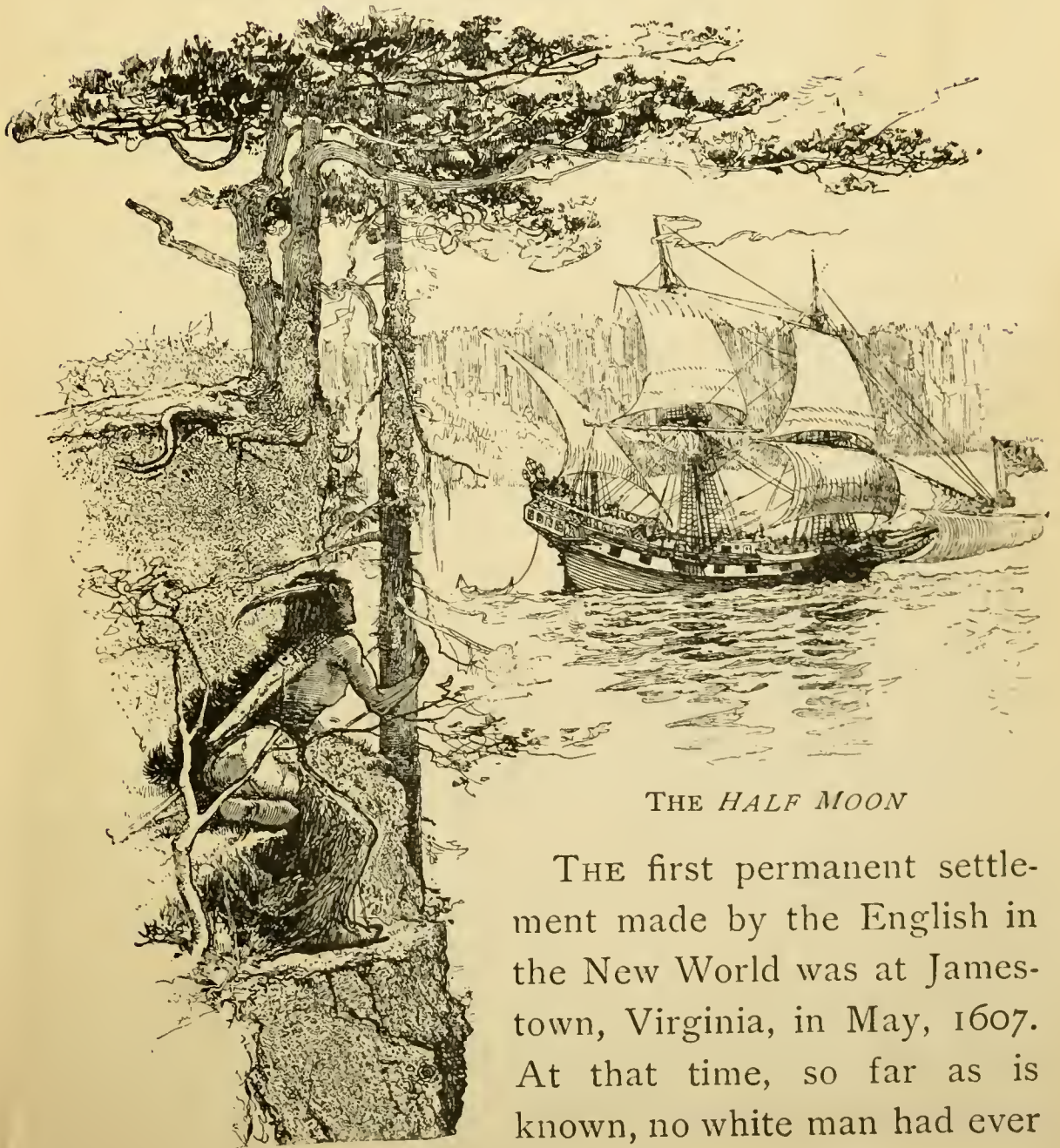
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PERIOD I—THE COLONIAL PERIOD
(1630-1775)

CHAPTER I

EARLY SETTLEMENTS



THE *HALF MOON*

THE first permanent settlement made by the English in the New World was at Jamestown, Virginia, in May, 1607. At that time, so far as is known, no white man had ever

set foot in the present State of New Jersey. The only people who roamed through the solitudes were the Indians. Their camp fires gleamed in the silent depths of the woods, and they hunted and fished and sometimes fought with one another. They numbered less than two thousand, and belonged to the Delaware or Lenni Lenape tribe, who were members of the great Algonquin family.

One mild day in September, 1609, the little Dutch ship *Half Moon*, with a crew of less than twenty men, entered the harbor of New York, passed round to the mouth of a large river on the north, and began sailing up the stream. The captain of the *Half Moon* was an Englishman named Henry Hudson. For a long time after the discovery of America, nearly every one believed it was only a strip of land, across which it would be easy to pass to the vast continent of Asia beyond. Hudson was in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, and had been sent out to search for the northwest passage to India. The river which he discovered was named after him — the Hudson River.

The quaint Dutch ship sailed so slowly that it took a week for it to reach the site of the present city of Albany. Indians peeped out from among the trees at the strange visitors, or paddled alongside the vessel in their canoes, just as the dusky natives did at San Salvador, more than a hundred years before, when the three small caravels of Columbus crossed the Atlantic and anchored near the shore.

The discovery of Henry Hudson gave the Dutch a claim to the region, which they called New Netherland, although England insisted that the whole continent belonged to her,

across the Hudson by Governor Kieft and acting under his orders, attacked at night a large band of Indians, who had been driven southward by northern tribes and, relying on the friendship of the white settlers, had encamped in that part of Communipaw now known as Lafayette. The soldiers massacred eighty of the Indians, without regard to age or sex. This brutal act precipitated an Indian war in which all the houses and farms in Pavonia were destroyed and all the settlers either killed or driven out. After peace was restored, the settlers returned; the settlements increased in number and extended farther from the Hudson.

Another outbreak occurred in 1654, when Pavonia was again laid waste. In order to satisfy the Indians, Governor Stuyvesant purchased from them the land comprising nearly all of what is now Hudson county. To protect the settlers from further attacks he required them to concentrate in towns and villages. In accordance with this order the village of Bergen (now a part of Jersey City) was founded in 1660. The origin of the name is doubtful, but the village was probably so called because of its location (*berg* meaning hill).



DUTCH AND SWEDISH
SETTLERS

New Jersey formed a part of New Netherland, which belonged to Holland. That country, in 1623, placed a colony near Gloucester and built Fort Nassau. Sweden in 1638 sent over a company under the command of Peter Minuit, who had been director-general of New Netherland.

This company built Fort Christina (at Wilmington). Other expeditions, in which a large number of Finns were included, followed in the years 1640 to 1647. The Swedes purchased from the Indians the land extending along both shores of Delaware Bay and on the west side of the Delaware River to a point opposite Trenton. They called the country New Sweden.

For years the Dutch and Swedes were hostile to each other. When grim old Peter Stuyvesant became governor of New Amsterdam, he stamped about on his wooden leg,



DUTCH CAPTURING SWEDISH FORT

swung his cane, and threatened to do dreadful things to the intruders; but the Swedish governor Printz was as big physically as he, and was not afraid of him. Finally, in 1655, a Dutch fleet came up the river and captured everything that belonged to Sweden, whose rule in Amer-

ica thus came to an end. The Swedes quietly accepted the change of masters, and, to all intents and purposes, became fully as Dutch as if their ancestors had been born and had lived all their lives on the banks of the Zuyder Zee.

The Swedes were not the only ones with whom the Dutch had trouble. Of all the English colonies, the wealthiest was that at New Haven. One of the members of

this colony was trafficking down the coast in the winter of 1638-39, when he discovered that the Swedes and Finns had built up a brisk trade on the Delaware Bay with the Indians. He hurried back to New Haven with the news. His townsmen met in 1640, formed the "Delaware Bay Company," and sent another captain to the region to buy all the land he could. He was told not to meddle with the Dutch, but in his greed he purchased wherever chance offered. He thus gained a claim to nearly all the southwest coast of New Jersey, with a tract of land called Passayunk, on the present site of Philadelphia.

The Dutch and Swedes, in the face of this new danger, stopped wrangling and joined in driving out the English, who reluctantly straggled back to New Haven. They would not give up the scheme of settling in the fine Dutch territory, and in 1651 sent another expedition thither. Everything went well until the ships reached New Amsterdam, when Governor Stuyvesant made them turn about and go back to New Haven.

New England shared the indignation of New Haven, and made ready to punish New Amsterdam. Soon after, war broke out between England and Holland. On August 29, 1664, New Netherland was captured by an English fleet, and the name of New Amsterdam was changed to New York. This event opened an era in the history of New Jersey.

Charles II. at that time was king of England. He regarded this continent as his personal property, and granted the new territory to his brother, the Duke of York, afterward James II. In the same year the Duke granted all that portion lying between the Hudson and the Delaware

to Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. The region was called Nova Cæsaria or New Jersey, in honor of the brave defense of the island of Jersey, made in 1649, by Sir George Carteret, against the forces of Cromwell.

Berkeley and Carteret gave New Jersey a constitution which remained in force until 1676. Philip, a distant relative of Sir George, was commissioned as governor of the province, and arrived in the summer of 1665, with thirty



PHILIP CARTERET'S JOURNEY TO ELIZABETHTOWN

emigrants. Placing himself at their head, and with a hoe resting on his shoulder, he led the way inland to a spot where he decided to begin a settlement. He named it Elizabethtown, in honor of the wife of Sir George Carteret.

We must remember that there were several small scattered settlements in New Jersey, before the arrival of Governor Carteret. Several of these have already been mentioned. In addition, the Dutch were quite numerous along the western shore of Newark Bay, and a few Swedish

farmers were living in the present counties of Gloucester and Burlington. The colonial history of no other State has so many tangled skeins as that of New Jersey. In order to untangle these threads, we must keep a number of facts in mind.

As soon as the Dutch surrendered New Netherland, the English governor, Nicolls, took charge, acting as the agent of the Duke of York. Not knowing of the transfer to Berkeley and Carteret, he named the province Albania and began to colonize it. With his approval, a large section, bordering on Newark Bay, was bought from the Indians by a few New England Puritans, who settled there in 1664. In the spring of 1665 a similar grant of territory included the land lying between the mouth of the Raritan and Sandy Hook. All this was done before Governor Nicolls learned of the transfer to Berkeley and Carteret, and was the cause of much trouble for half a century afterward.

Thus matters stood when Philip Carteret became governor. He made Elizabethtown, with its three or four cabins, the capital. The Proprietors offered tracts of lands varying from sixty to one hundred and fifty acres, according to the date of arrival of the settlers and the number of their bond servants and slaves. (A bond servant differed from a slave in that his bondage ended after a certain number of years, while that of a slave endured for life.) No quit rent was to be paid until 1670, when it was to be at the rate of one halfpenny an acre. The legislative assembly was to consist of a governor, a council of twelve, nominated by the Proprietors, and the same number of representatives chosen by the people. All laws passed

were subject to the approval of the Proprietors, and freedom of conscience and worship was guaranteed to all.

Agents were sent abroad to set forth the attractiveness of the province to settlers, and they met with marked success. Immigrants came from New England, from Long Island, and from England. Elizabethtown, Middletown, and Shrewsbury, all founded before Carteret came, flourished, as did Piscataway and Woodbridge, settled in 1666 by colonists from New England. Some of the men who came from New England to examine New Jersey selected land near the present city of Burlington. On their return, they met Governor Carteret at Elizabethtown, and he persuaded them to settle on the Passaic River. In May, 1666, thirty families came from Connecticut and bought one half of the present county of Essex from the Indians for goods and wampum worth \$740. They named their new abode Newark, in compliment to their minister, Abraham Pierson, whose home in England bore that name. Although most of these immigrants were from a single town, three other settlements were represented. Their leader was Captain Robert Treat, afterward governor of Connecticut, who showed so much ability as an organizer and director that he is regarded as the father of Newark. More land was bought from the Indians, but Newark grew slowly.

At this time the white population of New Jersey was scarcely three thousand. Philadelphia was a straggling village, and neither Trenton nor New Brunswick had been founded. The whole province remained a wilderness. In going from Elizabethtown and Bergen Point to the Delaware, settlers had to follow the old Indian trails, or the

paths made by bears, wolves, and deer in passing to and from the springs.

The first New Jersey assembly met at Elizabethtown, May 26, 1668, and remained in session four days. In this assembly, Bergen, Elizabethtown, Newark, Woodbridge, Middletown, and Shrewsbury were represented. The New England code was mainly copied, and it was decreed that twelve specified crimes should be punishable with death. The first ripple of trouble appeared six months later. Shrewsbury and Middletown refused to pay certain taxes imposed by the assembly. Although these towns were represented in the popular branch, their members would not take the oath of allegiance and were not permitted to sit in the second assembly.

The cause of this action by the two towns named has been explained. Since they were in existence before Carteret became governor, they denied his authority over them. The discontent came to a head in March, 1670, when the quit rents fell due and payment was demanded. The older towns, with some justice, claimed that having paid for the lands in full to the Indians, they owed nobody else for them. They refused absolutely to pay the quit rent, and a number of settlers who had come at a later date united with them. The turmoil lasted for two years and then came anarchy.

Finally, in May, 1672, the rebellious settlers chose a new assembly, turned out Philip Carteret, and elected James Carteret, a worthless son of Lord Carteret, as governor. Finding himself defied on every hand, Philip Carteret took ship for England to get redress. He left John Berry as his deputy. The king confirmed the authority of Philip

Carteret, and declared that the governor and council had the sole right to approve such representatives as were nominated by the several towns, and to regulate the sessions of the legislature. The payment of quit rents was postponed until 1676.

It took James Carteret but a brief time to prove his utter unfitness to rule. In May, 1673, he was turned adrift, and John Berry acted as governor. When Carteret left town, it was thought that was the last that would be seen of him; but several years later he returned to beg his food from door to door as a common tramp.

In August, 1673, the Dutch recaptured New York, but in the next year returned it to England. Since this shift of authority seemed to throw some doubt on the Duke of York's title, he obtained a new one from the king and commissioned Edmund Andros as governor of New York and its dependencies. The Duke also renewed the title of Sir George Carteret to one half the province. He selected the northern portion, leaving the southern part to Berkeley.

Again we must carefully note events in order to understand their connection and the results flowing therefrom. Lord Berkeley had grown old and was disappointed by the failure of his colonizing schemes. On March 18, 1673, he sold his half of New Jersey to John Fenwick and Edward Byllinge for a thousand pounds. The two buyers were Quakers, but disagreed over the purchase. They showed their good sense, however, by asking William Penn to arbitrate their differences. He gave Fenwick one tenth and Byllinge nine tenths of the purchase. Then Byllinge failed and transferred all his interest for the benefit of his

creditors to William Penn, Gawen Laurie, and Nicholas Lucas. With the consent of Fenwick, these trustees divided all the property into one hundred shares, of which the ninety owned by Byllinge were offered for sale. Later Fenwick's one tenth passed under the control of the same three trustees.

In 1675 Fenwick, with a large number of emigrants, sailed from London in the ship *Griffin*. After a pleasant voyage, they entered the Delaware Bay, landing near the site of an old Swedish fort. They were so pleased with the place that they began a settlement, which they named Salem, meaning "peace." The *Griffin* was the first English vessel to bring immigrants to New Jersey. Fenwick apportioned the land among the settlers and assumed authority.

On July 1, 1676, the province was divided by a line running from Little Egg Harbor on the seacoast to latitude $41^{\circ} 40'$ on the Delaware. All territory north and east of this line was called East Jersey, while all south and west of the line was West Jersey. This distinction is preserved to some extent to this day, especially that of "West Jersey."

CHAPTER II

EAST JERSEY AND WEST JERSEY, 1676-1702

WE are now to study the history of New Jersey during the period when it was divided into the two provinces known as East Jersey and West Jersey. The separation lasted from 1676 to 1702, and the close of the period saw all the original colonies settled with the exception of Georgia, in which the first settlement was planted in 1733.

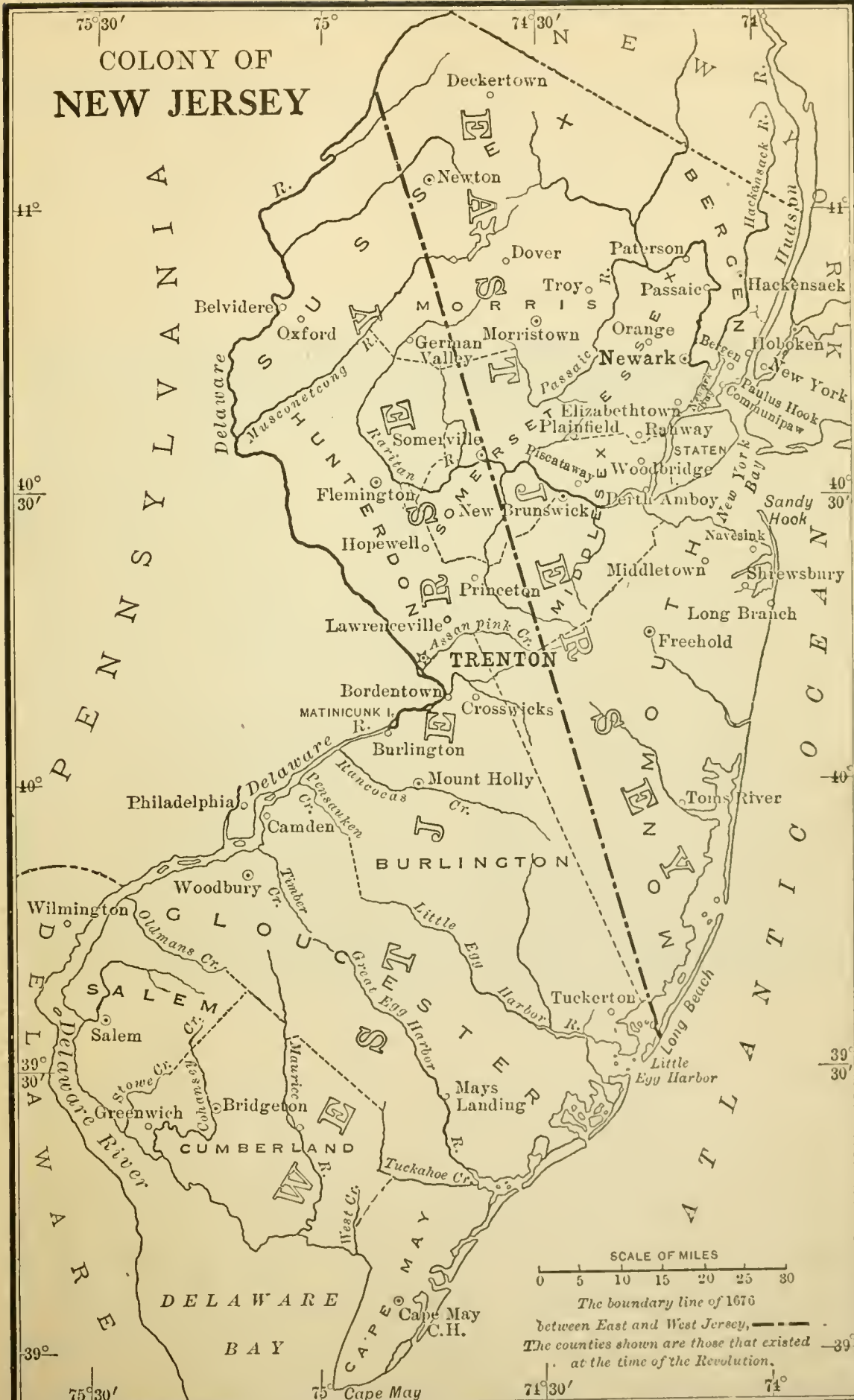


SIR EDMUND ANDROS

The year 1676 was an eventful one both to the north and south of New Jersey. New England was engaged in a furious war with King Philip, leader of several powerful Indian tribes, while the rebellion of Nathaniel Bacon, in Virginia, threatened the overthrow of the tyrant, Sir William Berkeley, who was recalled to England the following year.

Sir Edmund Andros was governor of New York from 1675-1681. He was a stern, honest, and tyrannical ruler, jealous of his rights and devoted to his royal patron, the Duke of York, who became King James II. in 1685. The following year Andros was made governor of the northern colonies, including New England and New York. The

COLONY OF NEW JERSEY



SCALE OF MILES
 0 5 10 15 20 25 30
 The boundary line of 1676
 between East and West Jersey, - - -
 The counties shown are those that existed
 at the time of the Revolution.

overthrow of James II. led the people of Boston to turn out Andros in 1689. He was afterward governor of Virginia. This remarkable man was very aggressive and was closely connected with the colonial history of New Jersey.

William Penn framed the original plan of government, and the Proprietors approved it March 3, 1676, as "The Concessions and Agreements of the Proprietors interested in the Province of West Jersey in America." It granted absolute freedom of conscience, and surrendered all authority to commissioners. These were first appointed by the Proprietors, but afterward their appointment was turned over to resident Proprietors and inhabitants. The election took place annually, and the system was the purest form of democracy.

The commissioners sailed from London with a large number of settlers in the summer of 1677, on the ship *Kent*. After a trying voyage, the ship dropped anchor within Sandy Hook, and the commissioners called upon Governor Andros, to pay their respects. He received them courteously, and asked whether they had any warrant from the Duke of York. They were obliged to say they had not, whereupon he told them he would not recognize their authority. He gave them a warrant, however, from himself until the dispute should be settled by the Duke.

The main company of colonists meanwhile sailed up the Delaware, and bought from the Indians tracts of lands extending to the falls of Trenton. They laid out a town in 1677, which was first named New Beverly, then Bridlington, and finally Burlington. The Indians treated the white people very kindly and gave them plenty of

corn and venison. The colony thrived and received many additions.

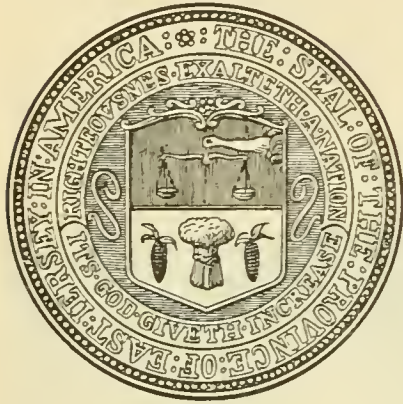
Matters did not go so well in East Jersey, however. Governor Carteret tried by every means to add to the prosperity of the province. One step was to open direct trade with England without the payment of custom. Governor



CARTERET DRAGGED FROM BED

Andros forbade any ship to land on the Jersey shore until after it had paid an impost duty at Manhattan. Upon the death of Sir George Carteret, in 1679, Andros claimed authority over the province, and ordered Governor Carteret to give way. He indignantly refused. In April, 1680, Andros sent a squad of soldiers to Elizabethtown, who dragged Governor Carteret from bed late at night, and took him to New York, where he was placed on trial

before Andros himself. The jury were ordered to find the prisoner guilty, but sturdily refused to do so. Carteret was



SEAL OF EAST JERSEY

kept in custody for some time until the question could be decided in England.

Andros did not neglect West Jersey. He had imprisoned Fenwick, the founder of Salem, in 1676, but liberated him on his promise not to assume authority in that province.

Andros accused him of breaking his word and arrested him again two years later. Besides this, Andros collected a duty on all English goods imported into New Jersey. The Proprietors appealed to the Duke of York, who referred the question to the eminent lawyer, Sir William Jones. He declared the tax illegal. In 1681 the Duke made a new grant of West Jersey to the trustees, to whom were given the territory and government without reserve.

The effect of this action was excellent. Immigrants, chiefly Quakers, came to the province, and affairs moved smoothly. Byllinge, the newly appointed governor, chose to stay in England, and made Samuel Jennings his deputy. Jennings called the first legislative assembly together at Burlington, November 21, 1681, and a number of needed laws were passed. In the following May Burlington became the capital of the province, and that town and Salem were made ports of entry.



SEAL OF WEST JERSEY

By this is meant that each town had a custom house, where vessels could load and unload their cargoes as the law directed.

Although Byllinge had insisted upon and had used the right of naming the deputy governor, his authority for doing so was questioned. The assembly amended the constitution, and, in accordance with its provisions, elected Jennings governor. He was afterward sent to England to argue the matter with Byllinge. Before he left, he nominated Thomas Olive as his deputy, who, being elected, served until September, 1685.

Byllinge would not yield his claim, though he granted a more liberal charter. He died in 1687, and his interests were bought by Dr. Daniel Coxe of London, who clung to the same rights that had been claimed by Byllinge. Grave trouble would have followed, but for interference from an unexpected cause.

The decision of Sir William Jones transferred East Jersey again to Governor Carteret, but the quarrel over quit rents broke out once more. The trustees of Sir George Carteret then lost patience and offered the territory for sale. William Penn and eleven associates bought East Jersey for the sum of £3400. The enterprise was too great to be handled by twelve persons, so each sold one half his interest to another. Among the new partners were a number of eminent men, such as the Earl of Perth, Lord Drummond, and Robert and David Barclay. They were mostly Scotchmen, and each owned one twenty-fourth of the territory, which was inheritable, divisible, and assignable. Thus it stands to-day. The legislature of New Jersey has nothing to do with unappropriated land,

all of which belongs to the Proprietors. They alone can dispose of it. Only a trifling amount, however, remains in their hands. A new and final patent was granted to the twenty-four Proprietors by the Duke of York, March 14, 1683.

Robert Barclay, the distinguished Quaker scholar, who was one of the Proprietors, was appointed governor of East Jersey for life. He never crossed the ocean, but was allowed to act through a deputy. He chose an able London lawyer named Thomas Rudyard, who came over in November, 1682. His work for a time was satisfactory. At the first session of the assembly of East Jersey, soon after, the province was divided into the four counties of Bergen, Essex, Middlesex, and Monmouth. In May, 1688, the county of Somerset was formed from Middlesex. The boundaries of these and other counties have been changed from time to time as the necessity arose.

Rudyard quarreled with Groome, the surveyor-general, and suspended him from office. The Proprietors thereupon turned Rudyard out and elected Gawen Laurie, a Scotch Quaker, in his place. He arrived early in 1684. His aim was to build up a port that would rival New York. He named the new metropolis Perth Amboy, in honor of his friend, the Earl of Perth. He strove hard with his favorite project, but as we know, his dream was never realized.

The bitter persecution of Scotch Presbyterians caused many to emigrate to this country, both under Charles II. and James II. With a view of encouraging such people, the Proprietors made Lord Neill Campbell deputy governor in 1686. He stayed only a short time, and, upon sailing for England, in March, 1687, left Andrew

Hamilton to act in his place. About this time, King James II. showed a disposition to break the pledges he had made when Duke of York. He meant to get back New Jersey, because of the large sum it would add to his revenues. All vessels going to the province were compelled to pay duties at New York. The collector complained that the law was evaded, and the English ministry ordered the issue of a writ of *quo warranto* against the Proprietors. By this was meant an official inquiry into the warrant for the authority used by the Proprietors. The result would have been the stripping of all power from them. Certain of what was coming, they surrendered in 1688 their claims to the jurisdiction of East Jersey, on condition that they kept their rights of property in the soil. A writ of *quo warranto* had already been issued against West Jersey, and in October she took the same action as East Jersey.

You remember that Edmund Andros was made governor of the northern colonies, including New England and New York, in 1686, and once more he tried to interfere in New Jersey affairs; but his triumph was brief, for, before the necessary papers were drawn up and signed, the English revolution of 1688-89 drove James II. from the throne. In East and West Jersey the Proprietors resumed authority, and matters went on as before.

In East Jersey, Andrew Hamilton had been confirmed as the deputy governor of Andros. In the general overturn he was so confused as to his duties that he sailed for England in August, 1686, to get instructions from the Proprietors. From that date until 1692 East Jersey had no government except that by her town and county officers. The Proprie-

tors sent a governor to the province in 1690 and another the following year, but the people rejected both. Hamilton was accepted in 1692 and was commissioned as governor of West Jersey also, inasmuch as Coxe had abandoned the office.

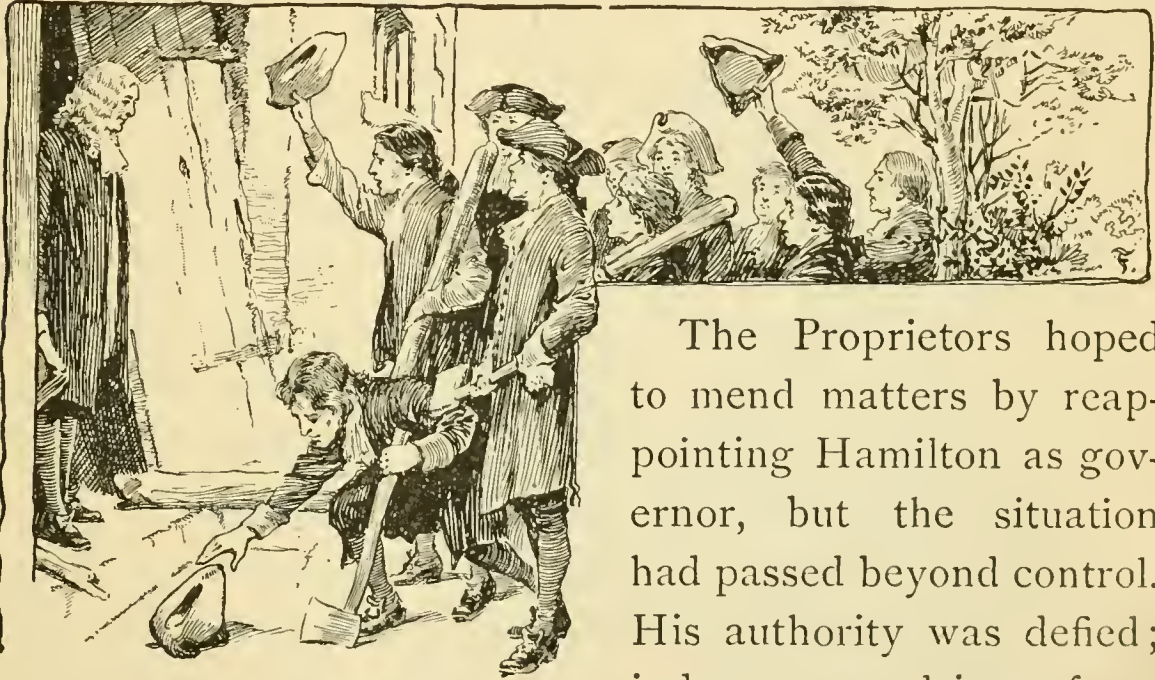
Several years of comparative quiet followed. All might have gone well but for the endless quarrel over quit rents. The provincial courts decided against those who fell back upon their Indian titles, and the royal council reversed the decision. No governor could have used more tact than did Hamilton, but unfortunately the Proprietors were compelled to remove him in 1697, because of a new law which prevented all Scotchmen from holding offices of public trust and profit.

This disastrous change brought forward Jeremiah Basse. He claimed to have a commission as governor with the king's approval, but this was soon proved to be untrue, and he did not have enough Proprietors' names to make his warrant valid. After Basse was rejected, he tried to get the better of his enemies by joining those who had opposed the proprietary government. His character, however, was such that he gained very few friends.

At this critical juncture, New York made matters worse by renewing her claim of jurisdiction and ordered a duty to be paid on all East Jersey exports. Payment of such duty was refused, with the result that for a time it looked as if war would break out between New York and New Jersey.

By this time Basse had made himself the most disliked man in the community. When he was angered into throwing an opponent into jail, a mob promptly broke in the

doors and released the defiant prisoner. The officers acting for Basse were assaulted, and the situation became so intolerable that he hastily took ship for England in the summer of 1699.



MOB LIBERATING PRISONER

The Proprietors hoped to mend matters by reappointing Hamilton as governor, but the situation had passed beyond control. His authority was defied; judges were driven from court; sheriffs were beaten

while in the discharge of their duties; and anarchy reigned. The real cause was the continual dispute over quit rents. The Proprietors claimed sole ownership of the soil, under the grants of the Duke of York, and refused to recognize any title derived from the Indians. The actual revolt, therefore, was against the Proprietors.

When these owners of the Jerseys were asked by the royal council to transfer their authority to the crown, they were glad to do so. The Proprietors were fortunate in securing their property in the soil, and the payment of the quit rents. Thereupon, on the 17th of April, 1702, they resigned all right of government both in East and in West Jersey.

CHAPTER III

TO THE CLOSE OF COLONIAL RULE, 1702-1775

EDWARD HYDE, known as Lord Cornbury, was appointed by Queen Anne governor in chief of New York and New Jersey. He called the New Jersey assembly together at Perth Amboy, November 10, 1703. The body consisted of twenty-four members, and met alternately at Perth Amboy and Burlington. When the legislators were assembled before him, the governor told them in his lofty manner that their only business was to raise money, and prepare bills for the queen's consideration. The first governor of the reunited Jerseys was not only a man without a redeeming virtue, but one who was proud of his wickedness.

In June, 1704, the legislature was called to meet at Burlington to provide means for building a fort at Navesink, as a protection against the French, and to form a militia system. Thinking some of the members showed an independent mind, the governor dissolved the body and called another whose members were afraid to go contrary to his wishes. They voted him £600 out of the £2000 which they proposed to raise by taxation. Three of the legislators who said they thought the people ought to have some share in the government, were instantly expelled, at the

command of the governor. Lord Cornbury became more and more tyrannical. He also committed many follies unbefitting the dignity of his office. He actually paraded in public dressed as a woman. When reproved, he replied with a laugh that his masquerade was in honor of Queen Anne, who was his cousin. None but a monarchical government would have given such a man authority over his fellowmen. Finally, in 1707, the people gained a majority and took action against their infamous ruler. So strong were the protests sent to the queen that she recalled him in 1708 and appointed Lord John Lovelace, baron of Hurley, as his successor.

Cornbury's vices and crimes had involved him so heavily in debt that his creditors thrust him into prison. There he stayed till his father's death made him Earl of Clarendon. As no member of the peerage could be arrested for debt, Cornbury walked out of jail a free man. Many of his creditors were among the poorest people.



LORD CORNBURY IN FEMALE
ATTIRE

The notable measures of his rule were: the denial of liberty of conscience to Roman Catholics, the encouragement of the slave trade, and the forbidding of the printing of anything whatever without permission of the governor. This strangling of a free press was one of the evil inheritances from the feudal ages, when the "right of birth," exercised by the peerage, trampled in the dust the natural rights of man.

Lord Lovelace, the new governor, summoned the council to meet him at Bergen, December 30, 1708. He made a pleasing impression by his address, and proved himself a wise ruler. He died, however, a few months after taking office.

His successor, Richard Ingoldsby, was soon superseded by Robert Hunter. An index of this Scotchman's fine character is found in his speech to the assembly: "If honesty is the best policy, 'plainness' must be the best oratory. Let every man begin 'at home' and weed the rancor out of his own mind and the work is done. All power except that of doing good is a burden."

Queen Anne's War was between the English on one hand and the French and Spanish on the other. It began in 1702 and closed in 1713. In the campaign for the conquest of Canada, the New Jersey assembly ordered the levy of a regiment and appropriated £3000 for the expenses of the expedition. This was the first issue of what may be called paper currency in New Jersey. It was all redeemed within the following fifty years. A disaster to the English fleet, in June, 1711, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, when eight hundred men were drowned, caused the abandonment of the campaign.

Growing tired of the cares of office, Governor Hunter resigned in 1719, and was succeeded by William Burnet, son of the celebrated bishop. He had been lieutenant governor of Virginia in 1705. Burnet, who was a man of great culture, made a good governor, though unfortunately he and the assembly did not always agree. In 1728 he was transferred to Massachusetts, where he died two years later. His successor was John Montgomerie, who held office until his death in 1731.

Lewis Morris, as president of council, acted as governor until 1732, and was followed by William Cosby, who held office down to 1736. He was the last regular governor of New York and New Jersey, but John Anderson, and after him, John Hamilton (son of Andrew Hamilton), as presidents of council, brought affairs to the year 1738. In that year, New Jersey became entirely free from New York and chose her own governor. Her selection was Lewis Morris.



LEWIS MORRIS

Morris at that time was the most popular man in the province. He was born, probably, in 1671 upon the estate of Morrisania, founded by his father, who died soon after and left the property to his brother, Colonel Lewis Morris, who removed thither from Barbados. Colonel Morris purchased 3540 acres in what is now Monmouth county, and from him the tract passed to his adopted son, who subsequently became governor.

There were considerable disturbances in that section, and once Morris was taken prisoner and confined in a log house. A party of his friends, however, lifted up one corner

of the house and the governor crawled out. Quick to penetrate the character of the vicious Lord Cornbury, Morris resolutely opposed him from the first. He drew up the complaint against him and was made the bearer of it to the queen. He was a member of the council, judge



RELEASE OF LEWIS MORRIS

of the supreme court, and had been chief justice of New York and New Jersey. He was the second chancellor for New Jersey, named in Lord Cornbury's instructions; was suspended by him; restored by the queen and suspended a second time in the same year (1704). He was chosen to the assembly in 1707, again in 1708, suspended in 1709 by Lieutenant Governor Ingoldsby, appointed again the following year, continuing until 1738, when he was made governor of New Jersey.¹

¹ Three men, each named Lewis Morris, were connected with the early history of Monmouth county. The first was the uncle, as has been stated, of the governor, and the third was the talented son of the latter. These facts have caused confusion on the part of historians, due partly to the additional fact that no authentic information of the date of the governor's birth is obtainable.

The highest hopes were felt for his administration ; but, among all the governors of New Jersey, Lord Cornbury was the only one who was more unpopular than Morris made himself. The chief cause for this strange fact was his increasing years. He was an old man, and he became so soured and quarrelsome that it seemed as if every one turned against him. It was impossible for him and the assembly to agree, and that body defeated many good measures simply because the governor favored them.

When King George's War broke out in 1744, between England and France, Governor Shirley of Massachusetts asked the other provinces to join in a plan to capture the French fortress, Louisburg, one of the strongest in the world. The New Jersey assembly refused to organize the militia, or to vote supplies, until the governor accepted several measures which they wished to become laws. He stubbornly refused. The assembly gave £2000 toward the Louisburg expedition, but would not order a levy to raise funds with which to pay the governor's salary. In the midst of the quarrel Governor Morris died in May, 1746. The feeling against him was so intense that the assembly refused to pay the widow the arrears due on his salary. The only honor he received in the latter years of his life was the naming of one of the counties for him.

John Hamilton, president of the council, now became governor. He, as well as his successor, John Reading, served only a short time when Jonathan Belcher, formerly of Massachusetts, was appointed to the office by the king. He arrived in 1747, and held the office for ten years. He was tactful, able, and honest, but he found more than one troublous task on his hands. Many prominent persons

had secured large tracts of land, and claimed their titles as valid above the titles of those who had previously paid the Indians for the same lands. It was the same old quarrel over quit rents, which threatened to trouble the province forever. The men who had bought last had writs of ejectment issued against the earlier owners and began suits for the recovery of the quit rents. The occupants of the lands resisted, and many fierce fights took place. Once they broke into the Essex county jail and released one of their number. Everybody except the later owners sympathized with the men who were persecuted, and for a long time the authorities were powerless.

Governor Belcher did his utmost to soothe the turbulence, but for a long time the task was beyond his power. In 1751 England ordered a commission of inquiry, but the Elizabethtown claimants clung to their property, and so long as they were able to do that, the victory really lay with them. The troubles did not end for years.

We now approach the period of the French and Indian War, that tremendous struggle between England and France for mastery in the New World. Braddock's defeat in 1755 spread consternation among the colonies, for the whole western frontier was left open to the danger of Indian forays. Governor Belcher hastily called the assembly together, but the members dallied for months before obeying his call. The Indians, who had always been friendly, were caught in the swirl of excitement. After spreading death and desolation along the western borders of Virginia and Pennsylvania, they crossed the Delaware and rushed into New Jersey.

Colonel John Anderson gathered four hundred men in

Essex county and hurriedly marched to Easton. There he did good service in holding the Indians in check. Numerous forts and blockhouses were built among the mountains and near the Delaware. Sir William Johnson, the Indian superintendent, persuaded the Delawares at Easton to make a treaty of peace, but for some time afterward the settlements in the northwestern part of New Jersey suffered greatly from Indian depredations.

In 1758, when the elder Pitt was at the head of affairs in England, a marked improvement took place in the prosecution of the war. New Jersey called for a thousand soldiers, paid a bounty of £12 for each recruit, and voted £50,000 for their support. Barracks were built at Elizabethtown, Perth Amboy, New Brunswick, and Trenton. The help of New Jersey in bringing about the triumph of England was of the highest value. She had kept her troops in the field at an expense of £300,000.

Fully thirty thousand colonists had given their lives to sustain the British empire in America. Of the £3,000,000 expended by them in the last great struggle, an amount large for those times, less than one third was returned by the English Parliament.

The ease with which the American colonies did their part led England to think well of their resources. She decided to impose a tax upon them to help obtain the vast revenue she needed. To the Americans the proposal of the English Parliament to tax them without allowing them to have any member to represent them in that body was irritating to the last degree. It was the unpopular doctrine of "taxation without representation" which had so much to do in bringing on the Revolution.

The French and Indian War was of great aid to the colonies, for it taught them their own strength. They became acquainted with one another; they were trained in the principles and discipline of war; a number of their leaders, among them the immortal Washington, developed marked military ability; and here and there the momentous question was whispered: "Can we not govern ourselves better than a country three thousand miles away, which has no real sympathy for us?" It has been truly said that the French and Indian War was the West Point of the Revolution for the Americans.

It was the time for the highest wisdom on the part of England, but she failed to meet the call. Deaf to protests and arguments, and blind to the ominous warnings plain to all in America, her Parliament, in March, 1764, passed the hated "Stamp Act." At the same time the "Quartering Act" was enacted. This empowered England to maintain a standing army in the colonies, and the different provincial assemblies were ordered to provide her garrisons with fuel, lights, vinegar, salt, bedding, cooking utensils, and liquors. The anger of the colonies passed all bounds, and a National Congress was called to meet in New York in October.



WILLIAM FRANKLIN

The last royal governor of New Jersey was William Franklin, only son of the famous philosopher, Benjamin Franklin. He was appointed in 1762, upon the urgency of John Stuart, the unpopular third Earl of Bute and prime minister of England. Franklin, who was a bitter loyalist or supporter of the

crown, held back New Jersey for a time, but the representatives gathered at Perth Amboy and appointed three delegates to the Congress.

Twenty-eight delegates were present at the Congress, representing Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, South Carolina, Delaware, New Jersey, and New York. New Hampshire and Georgia sent pledges to stand by the action of the delegates. The Congress adopted a Declaration of Rights, avowing loyalty to England, but declaring that the people would never submit to taxation without representation.

To show the deep feeling at that time, it may be said that Joseph Ogden, speaker of the assembly, and one of the New Jersey delegates, declined to sign the declaration, on the ground that it ought first to be approved by the respective assemblies.

He was denounced, burned in effigy, and compelled to resign his office as speaker of the assembly.



OGDEN BURNED IN EFFIGY

The New Jersey assembly unanimously approved the proceedings of the First Colonial Congress and added its protest against the late Act of Parliament. Governor Franklin sharply reproved the body and immediately prorogued or adjourned it. We all know of the storm that was raised in the colonies by the passage of the Stamp Act. Agent Coxe of New Jersey, like most of the other agents, threw up his commission and refused to handle the unpopular stamps. England repealed the law two years after its passage.

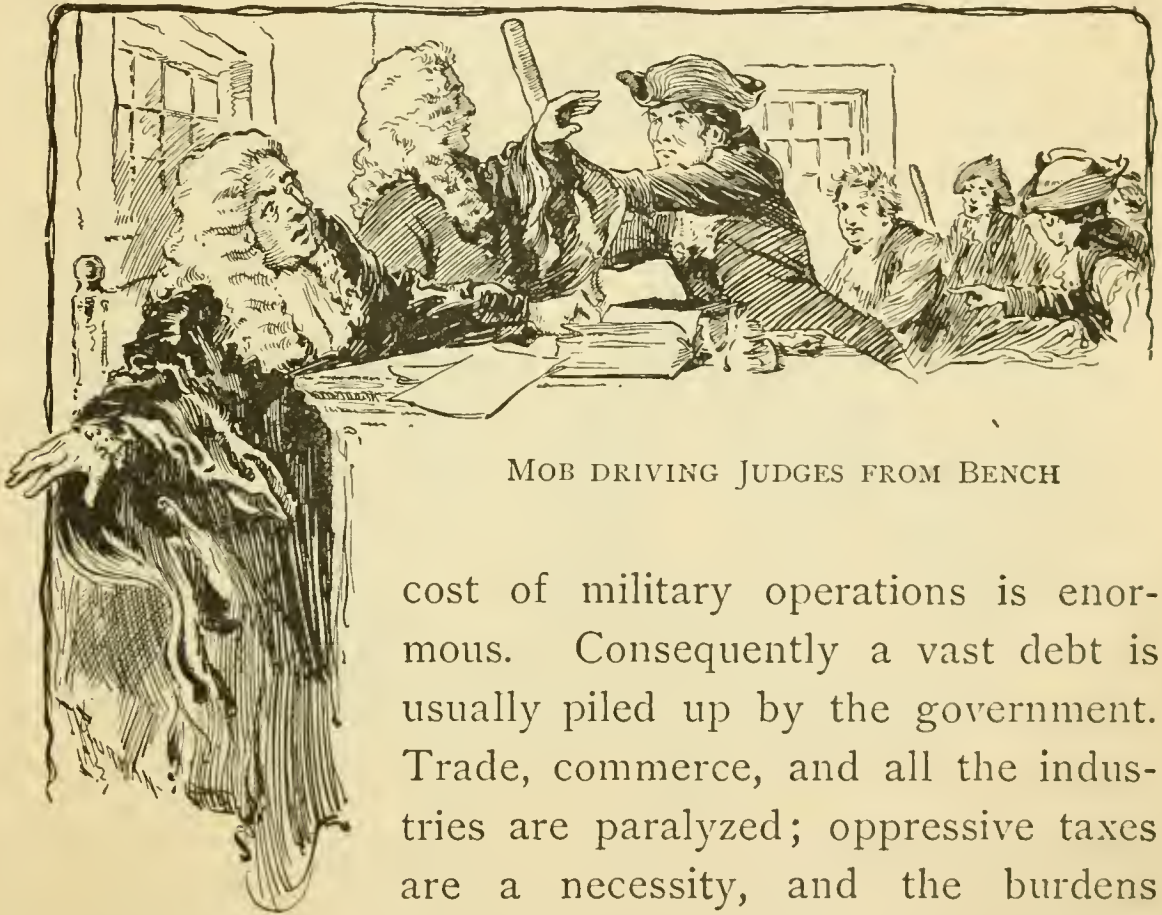
Great was the joy caused by this action. Many thoughtful men, however, saw that the trouble was merely postponed, for England would not yield her *right* to tax her colonies. The Quartering Act was as intolerable as the Stamp Act. The assembly of New Jersey refused full compliance, declaring it to be another form of taxation.

In June, 1767, Parliament passed a bill placing custom-house taxation on glass, paper, paints, and tea. Protests were as vigorous as before. "Freemen cannot be taxed but by themselves or their representatives," declared the New Jersey assembly. Most of the colonies renewed their agreement not to import any of the articles taxed. New Jersey had few imports, but she did all she could to encourage her neighbors. When some New York traders appeared in New Brunswick and Woodbridge to sell their goods, the citizens mobbed them with so much vigor that they thought themselves lucky to escape with their lives.

England, in April, 1770, repealed the tax upon all articles except tea. She made that so light that tea was cheaper in America with the tax than in England without it. The mother country, however, would not give up the principle that she had the right to tax her colonies, with-

out giving them a representation in Parliament, or her law-making body, and the Americans were just as resolute in holding to the opposite principle.

About this time and for several years after, New Jersey suffered greatly from a period of financial distress. The



MOB DRIVING JUDGES FROM BENCH

cost of military operations is enormous. Consequently a vast debt is usually piled up by the government. Trade, commerce, and all the industries are paralyzed; oppressive taxes are a necessity, and the burdens imposed upon an impoverished people are almost intolerable. It became well-nigh impossible in New Jersey to collect debts, and creditors were fiercely resisted. It was a harvest time for the lawyers, and the indignation of the people was turned against them. In January, 1770, a mob drove the judges from the bench in Monmouth Court House (later called Freehold) and made a similar attempt, but failed, in Newark. Laws were passed forbidding excessive costs in the recovery of debts, and finally the excitement calmed down.

Meanwhile, in March, 1770, a collision occurred in Boston between the citizens and a squad of British soldiers, in which five of the former were killed and a number wounded. At New York and Philadelphia the ships loaded with tea were not allowed to land their cargoes, and in Charleston, the tea was stored in damp cellars, where it soon molded. In December, 1773, some fifty men, painted and disguised as Indians, boarded three vessels in Boston Harbor and emptied all the tea into the bay.

New Jersey applauded these acts. That is to say, the Whigs did, while the Tories upheld the English government. It was nearly a year after the famous Boston Tea Party, that an English vessel, the *Greyhound*, laden with tea and bound for Philadelphia, came timidly up the Delaware River. The captain anticipated the reception that awaited him at Philadelphia and was afraid to go there. So he turned into Cohansey Creek and dropped anchor at the little town of Greenwich, in Cumberland county. He thought he could land the tea there and then have it taken overland to Philadelphia. He found no trouble in placing it in the cellar of a house near the wharf.

The news soon spread, and the Whigs met to decide what they should do. The fragrant herb was there, but they determined that it should never leave the town. So about forty young men, disguised, as in Boston, like Indians, broke open the storehouse, brought out the boxes, split them apart, and burned every particle of tea they contained. In such a small place all the young men were well known, and they were threatened with prosecution. A generous sum of money was subscribed to hire lawyers for their

defense, but the grand jury refused to indict them, although ordered by the presiding judge to do so. More important matters soon filled the public mind, and the tea burners of Greenwich were never called to account.



GREENWICH "TEA PARTY"

England was so incensed with Massachusetts that she closed the port of Boston. This caused much distress, and the other provinces went to her aid. None gave more generously than New Jersey. With the first present from Monmouth county went a message, urging the New Englanders not to yield, and promising more food whenever needed. Elizabethtown did the same, and the little town of Salem presented £150 to the needy ones in Boston. A common persecution was fast bringing the provinces into a closer union.

On September 5, 1774, delegates from all the colonies, except Georgia, met at Philadelphia. After earnest discussion they adopted an address to the people of the colonies, a petition to the king, a declaration of rights, a memorial to the English nation, and an address to Canada. These proceedings were laid before the New Jersey assembly, in January, 1775, and, despite the determined opposition of Governor Franklin, were approved without an opposing vote, although the Quaker members objected to the portion which hinted at forcible resistance. But opposition became as light as air. The torrent of American liberty burst all bounds, overbore every obstruction, and swept onward with resistless power. Less than three months later, at Lexington, was "fired the shot heard round the world," and the tremendous struggle for American independence was opened.

CHAPTER IV

MATERIAL PROGRESS OF NEW JERSEY TO 1775

WE have studied the political history of New Jersey from its first settlement to the dawn of the Revolution. It is a record of strife and peace, of many changes in the forms of government, of good and ill fortune, of discouragement and hope, of alternate wrangling and tranquil policies, but none the less of progress. The tangled skeins were unwound, and the glow of brighter days appeared on the horizon.

No state was settled by more diverse nationalities than New Jersey. The pioneers in the north were the Dutch, sturdy, thrifty, domestic, and law-abiding. Their neighbors were the Puritans, stern and God-fearing, who brought with them some of the rigor of New England; but the shell of intolerance soon broke apart, and left them foremost in charity and good works. In the east clustered the Scotch, clannish, patient, and conscientious. To both Jerseys, especially to Salem, came a number of French Huguenots. Refined, cultivated, and religious, they belonged to the highest type of manhood and womanhood. They had been made exiles by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, to the irreparable loss of the land that did not appreciate their worth. There remained, too, a few of the resolute toilers from

Sweden and Denmark, and in time came the happy, merry Irish and, in a lesser degree, other peoples. And here, there, and everywhere, leavening the whole lump, moved the Friends, gentle, peaceful, spiritually minded, and worldly wise. They clung to the Golden Rule in every walk of life, and founded across the Delaware a commonwealth based on truth, charity, and love, which may well serve as a model through the ages to come.

The blending and fusing of these elements, in varying degrees, evolved a stock that mentally, morally, and physically has never been surpassed. No braver soldiers ever faced death on the field of battle; no wiser statesmen ever sat in the councils of the nation or guided the destinies of a State; no more learned or stainless judiciary ever honored the bench. In philanthropy, education, religion, science, art, literature, and in all that makes a people truly great, New Jersey stands in the front rank. No star among the immortal thirteen shines with brighter luster than hers.

The population of New Jersey on the eve of the Revolution was about eighty thousand, including nearly five thousand slaves. West Jersey contained some twenty-five hundred more people than East Jersey. A sixth of the people were Quakers, who were more numerous in West Jersey. The counties had increased to thirteen.¹ Slavery was lawful from the first in all the colonies, and was guarded by royal patronage. In 1696, the Quakers joined their brethren in Pennsylvania in the agreement not to import or employ slaves. The institution, however, lasted for many years afterward.

¹ A list of these counties and of the different governors is given in the Appendix.

In the early days the province contained a number of "redemptioners," — people who, being too poor to pay their passage to this country, agreed to work a certain time for those who loaned them the money. The employers tried to get all the labor they could out of the redemptioners, whose lot was often worse than that of the slaves.

The Indians lived in their wretched huts in the pines, and fished, hunted, and sometimes worked for their white neighbors. The men were lazy and made their squaws do all the hard work, while they rested, smoked their pipes, and drank bad whisky procured from the white men. Many of the Indians were



SELLING A REDEMPTIONER

so degraded by drink that laws were passed forbidding its sale to them. It is to New Jersey's credit that she never cheated the Indians out of a penny, but paid them full value for every acre acquired by the State from them.

The passing years brought to light the richness of the soil and its mineral deposits. A freestone quarry was opened in 1721, and a year later a forge was set up at Dover, in Morris county. In 1768 the remarkable value of the marl in Monmouth county as a fertilizer was dis-

covered, and it is still in great demand. This substance is composed of carbonate of lime, clay, and sand in varying proportions and almost inexhaustible quantities. Iron was made at Troy bloomery, Morris county, and at Oxford, Warren county, in 1741. The works are still running. Iron mining was carried on in what is now Mercer county, previous to 1720. As early as 1676, Colonel Lewis Morris, as we recall, owned 3540 acres at Shrewsbury, where sixty negroes were employed in smelting.

The province had considerable commerce in the early days. Produce was sent to the West Indies; furs, skins, and more or less tobacco to England; and oil and fish to Spain, Portugal, and the Canary Islands. Whales appeared so frequently off the coast and in Delaware Bay that the hunting of them formed an important industry until after the Revolution. Rice was cultivated to some extent among the marshes in 1698. At that time also tar, turpentine, and whale oil were among the productions of the province.

The southeastern section was covered with extensive stretches of pine forest, of which thousands of acres remain. The sandy soil is held cheap, though irrigation and the use of fertilizers produce splendid fruit and certain crops. The timber in the north was mainly oak and hickory, and in the south, pine, stunted oak, and cedar. The abundance of marl, and innumerable seashells, prove that a large portion of New Jersey, in the remote past, formed a part of the bed of the ocean.

The first specie used in the colony was the wampum or shell money of the Indians. For many years gold, silver, and copper coins were scarce. Laws were made at different times, fixing the rate of exchange. Copper pieces, which

probably came from Ireland, were issued by Mark Newbrie, under the authority of an act of the legislature of May, 1682, but his death the following year ended the experiment of securing separate coinage. To-day the numismatists pay two dollars for a copper, and seven dollars for a silver farthing of that date. This piece shows on the obverse side, Charles I. as King David playing on a harp, with a crown above and the inscription "Floreat Rex." On the reverse, St. Patrick, holding a double cross, is driving out the reptiles. The coin was milled, and in the background was a church with the inscription, "Quiescat Plebs."

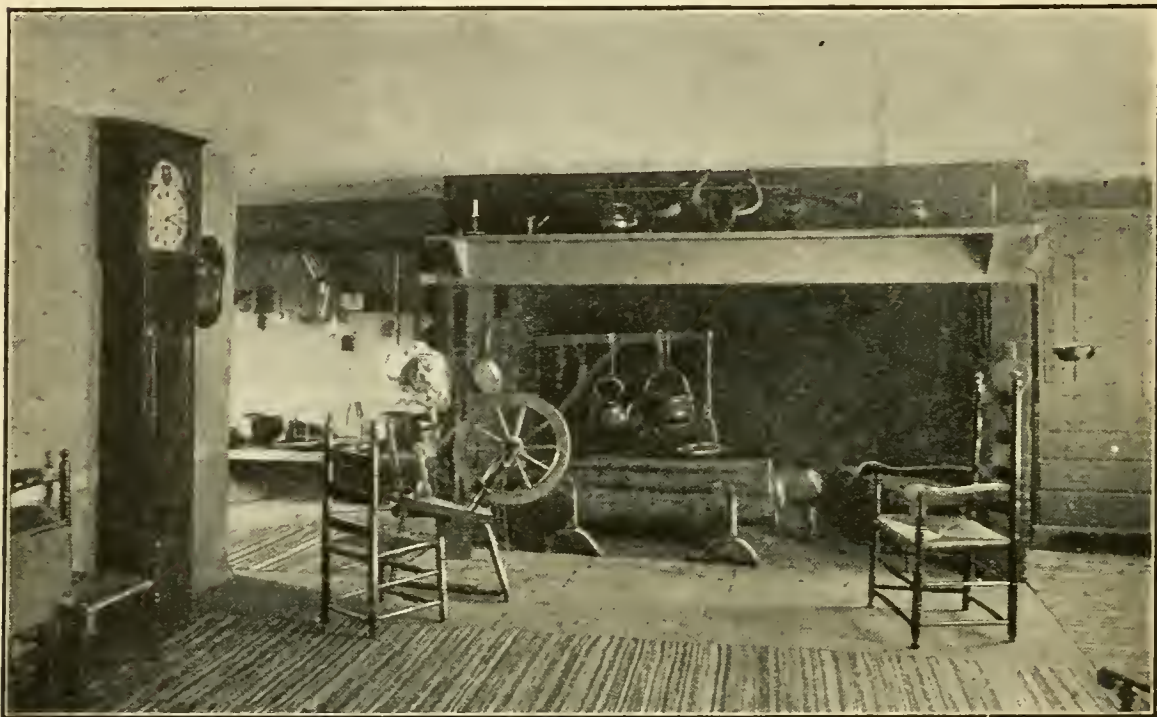
There was not a newspaper published in New Jersey until the Revolution. The first issue of the *New Jersey Gazette* was on December 3, 1777. Isaac Collins of Burlington was the publisher. It was a folio sheet, twelve by eight inches, and ceased publication in 1786. The earliest periodical was *The American Magazine*, which appeared in January, 1758, at Woodbridge, Middlesex county, where James Parker had set up a printing house seven years before. Lack of patronage caused the magazine to stop publication in March, 1760.

Stoves were unknown. The huge fireplaces might be heaped high with blazing logs of wood, but most of the heat went up the yawning chimney. You could stand or sit so near the roaring flames that your face would be scorched, while the other side of your body was chilled. All the boiling, frying, baking, and stewing were done in



WAMPUM

the enormous fireplaces. No one thought of screens. The lights were tallow dip or wax candles, and when a family was too poor to buy or make them, it used pine knots. Well-to-do men wore cloaks, but overcoats were unknown.



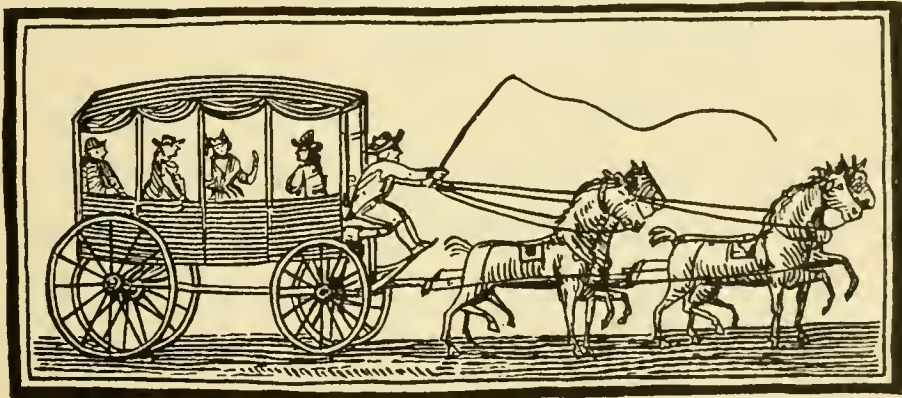
FIREPLACE, WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS, MORRISTOWN

When the cold was severe, a person put on more clothes. The sight of a man or a boy waddling along incased in several coats or pairs of trousers was not uncommon on a cold day.

Previous to 1676 New Jersey had but two roads. One of these, little more than a bridle path, connected New York with the settlements on the Delaware, and ran from Elizabethtown Point to the site of New Brunswick, where the river was forded at low water. Thence the course was to the Delaware above Trenton, at which point that stream was also forded. This was the "upper road." The "lower road" turned off five or six miles from the Raritan, and led to Burlington, the two roads being the only routes between

New York and Philadelphia. At Salem, Burlington, and Little Egg Harbor shipbuilding had become the leading industry as early as 1683.

In 1754 post offices were opened at Trenton, Perth Amboy, and Burlington. For twenty-five years before, a



Newark Stage for New-York.

A *FOUR HORSE STAGE* will leave Archer Gifford's, in Newark, every morning (except Sunday) at half past five o'clock, and will leave Powles Hook at 5 o'clock in the afternoon for Newark—This arrangement gives time for doing business in the city, and the coolest hours for travelling. Passengers choosing this conveyance may apply for seats to JOHN BOND at A. Gifford's.

Itf

J. N. Cumming.

EARLY STAGE COACH

weekly mail in summer and a semi-monthly one in winter was carried between New York and Philadelphia. In 1764 the postboys made the trip tri-weekly in twenty-four hours. The first through line, by way of Bordentown, began operation in 1734. Ten years later, stages ran twice a week between New Brunswick and Trenton. In

1750 a boat left New York every Wednesday for Perth Amboy, the passengers going the next day by stage to Bordentown, where boat was taken to Philadelphia. Two years later this trip was made semi-weekly. In 1756 the stage, by way of Perth Amboy and Trenton, was three days on the route. In 1766 two days in summer and three in winter were enough, and then the proud travelers called the stages "flying machines."

Our immediate ancestors knew very little of modern comforts. The houses along the shore were of wood, but there were some brick dwellings on Delaware Bay and River. Most of the bricks were made in the province, but many were brought across the ocean as ship ballast. Beyond the limits of tidewater the Dutch houses were sometimes stone and again brick. Very rarely was a curtain or carpet or any wall paper seen. Long years were to pass before the inventors began dreaming of the varied uses of steam and electricity, of the sewing machine, the typewriter, and a score of other useful things that have become necessities in modern civilization.

In the earliest times oiled paper was used for window panes. The housewife read the time of day by the sun dial or by the shadow cast on a certain mark on the wall or the floor. When the sun did not shine, she used her skill in guessing. The owner of one of the old-fashioned "bull's eye" watches was almost as much an object of curiosity and envy as he who had crossed the Atlantic.

New Jersey contained a considerable number of towns and villages in 1775. Newark, although more than a hundred years old, had only one thousand inhabitants. The first settlement of Trenton was made by Friends, at the

Falls of the Delaware, probably in 1679. The settlers suffered much from the ravages of a form of malignant fever in 1687.

In 1700 others who had bought land from the first Proprietors joined the pioneers. Most of the deeds bear dates from 1699 to 1710. In August, 1714, Mahlon Stacy sold eight hundred acres, lying on both sides of the Assanpink Creek, to Colonel William Trent of Philadelphia. He had been speaker of the house of assembly of Pennsylvania, and, in September, 1723, was chosen to the same office in New Jersey. He died the following year.

Neither Mahlon Stacy nor Colonel Trent was the founder of the capital of the State, which was named in honor of Trent. The real founders were there when Stacy and Trent joined them. The two were simply the leading citizens of the little town. Colonel Trent gave the lot on which the courthouse was built to the county (Hunterdon) in 1720, and the place was properly named for him. In 1719 the courts, which had met alternately at Lawrenceville and Hopewell, changed to Trenton. The town had few buildings until after 1735, and during the Revolution the houses numbered a hundred or possibly a few more. In 1750 Trenton surrendered the provisions of the charter granted in 1745, and the village became a part of the township of the same name.

In 1700 the site of New Brunswick was "Prigmore's Swamp." For years Daniel Cooper was the lone ferryman and the only inhabitant. About 1730 several Dutch families from Albany settled there and the town received a royal charter. During the Revolution it was generally referred to as "Brunswick." The first buildings in Rahway

were put up in 1720, the settlers coming from Elizabethtown. (This name was afterward shortened by dropping the last syllable.) Plainfield was scantily settled in 1735. In 1750 it had its first grist mill, and a year later its first schoolhouse. Hackensack contained thirty houses in 1775.

Scotch Plains received its name from the Scotch emigrants who settled there in 1684. In the same year the site of Camden was laid out, and a ferry to Philadelphia began running in 1695. Bordentown and Crosswicks were founded in 1781, while Tuckerton dates back to 1699. We have learned of the formation of the old towns of Bergen, Middletown, Shrewsbury, and Woodbridge, long prominent among the early settlements. German Valley, Newton, Oxford, Deckertown, and a number of other towns became prosperous during the first half of the eighteenth century, and since then many others have grown to importance. Paterson was not founded until 1791, while Jersey City remained Paulus Hook until well into the nineteenth century.

It seems strange to read that New Jersey during colonial days was shaken now and then by earthquakes. In November, 1720, there was an alarming trembling of the ground, which was repeated in the following September. A more violent shock, on the night of December 7, 1737, sent the scared people of Trenton leaping from their beds. Doors were flung open, bricks fell from the chimneys, and furniture was overthrown, but fortunately no lives were lost. The shock of the awful Lisbon earthquake of November, 1755, was distinctly felt on this side of the Atlantic.

Between 1734 and 1750 occurred the memorable religious revival known throughout the colonies as the "Great

Awakening.” The direct cause was the burning eloquence of Jonathan Edwards and George Whitefield. Their preaching roused a whirlwind of agitation and enthusiasm, and made thousands of converts. Edwards had a parish at Northampton, Massachusetts, until 1750. He preached to the Indians at Stockbridge from 1751 to 1758, dying in the latter year. He was one of the greatest theologians born in America.

Whitefield first visited this country in 1738, as a friend of John and Charles Wesley, the founders of Methodism, and of Governor Oglethorpe, the father of Georgia. He made seven visits to America, and in 1740 passed for the first time through the colonies. He won an immense number of converts by his wonderful appeals, which often were irresistible. He preached in Burlington and New Brunswick on his way to New York, and again at Elizabethtown, New Brunswick, and Lawrenceville on his return. His audiences often numbered more than five thousand. The good results of the work of this fervid, persuasive evangelist, who, Benjamin Franklin said, surpassed in some respects any orator to whom he had ever listened, were seen for many years. Reverend Gilbert Tennent gave great help to Whitefield, while John Woolman, of the Society of Friends, and Brainerd, the missionary to the Indians, did a service for humanity and religion whose value is beyond estimate.

The famous “Log College” was built in 1726, by Reverend William Tennent, and his two sons, from the logs of trees which lined the banks of a stream emptying into the Delaware at Bristol, Pennsylvania. The cabin has been called the forerunner of Princeton University, which, as a

college, was chartered by John Hamilton, acting governor, in 1746. Its beginning was at Elizabethtown, under Reverend Jonathan Dickinson. The first classes met in the old academy, which was burned during the Revolution. Mr. Dickinson and the usher were the only teachers, and the students numbered about a score. Mr. Dickinson died a year later, and the students passed to the care of Aaron Burr the elder, who was the first president. A removal was made to Princeton, in October, 1756. The students had increased to seventy, and Nassau Hall was built. Rutgers was chartered in 1766, by George III., as Queen's College, but lack of funds postponed its opening until 1771.

The Dutch and Swedes brought their schools with them. The Collegiate Church School, founded in 1633 at New Amsterdam, still exists, the oldest institution of its kind in America. The first school in New Jersey, of which we have authentic record, was opened in the village of Bergen in 1662, when the first schoolmaster was selected. Engelbert Stuyphuysen was licensed as clerk and schoolmaster, October 6, 1662. He was required to procure a convenient place to keep school. The first schoolhouse was erected about 1664. Woodbridge selected a schoolmaster in 1669, and Newark had one as early as 1676. In 1693 the East Jersey legislature authorized the selection at town elections of three citizens who had the right to hire teachers and fix their salaries, which, it hardly need be said, were very meager. This law opened the way for a marked improvement in schools.

The Friends were prompt in providing for the education of their youth. In 1682 the assembly at Burlington

set apart the island of Matinicum, near by in the Delaware, for the support of a school. The revenues from this island are still used for that purpose.

The instruction in most schools was very elementary and largely religious. Scant attention was paid to the higher branches, but, even at that early day, the Friends



A SCHOOL OF EARLY TIMES

avored industrial education, and gradually added more advanced studies to the school course. Sad to say, many of the traveling pedagogues were men of weak character, and so injurious to morals, that Governor Bernard, in 1788, was instructed by the assembly to forbid the employment in New Jersey of any teacher from England who did not have a license from the Bishop of London. The native teachers were obliged to obtain the governor's license.

The schools of the early days could bear no comparison with those of the present time. "Spare the rod and spoil the child" was their basic principle. Boys and girls were cruelly punished for a slight violation of the "rules." The text-books were almost worthless, blackboards and maps were unknown, the sessions were long, holidays were few, the schoolrooms were badly ventilated, and the instruction was crude to the last degree. Since in these conditions brute strength was a prime necessity, the teacher was rarely a woman.

As proof of the incredible ignorance of some of the old-time teachers, you can see to-day, in the Essex Institute, at Salem, Massachusetts, a receipt for salary paid, about a century ago, to which the instructor signed "her mark," being unable to write her own name.

PERIOD II—THE REVOLUTION

(1775-1783)

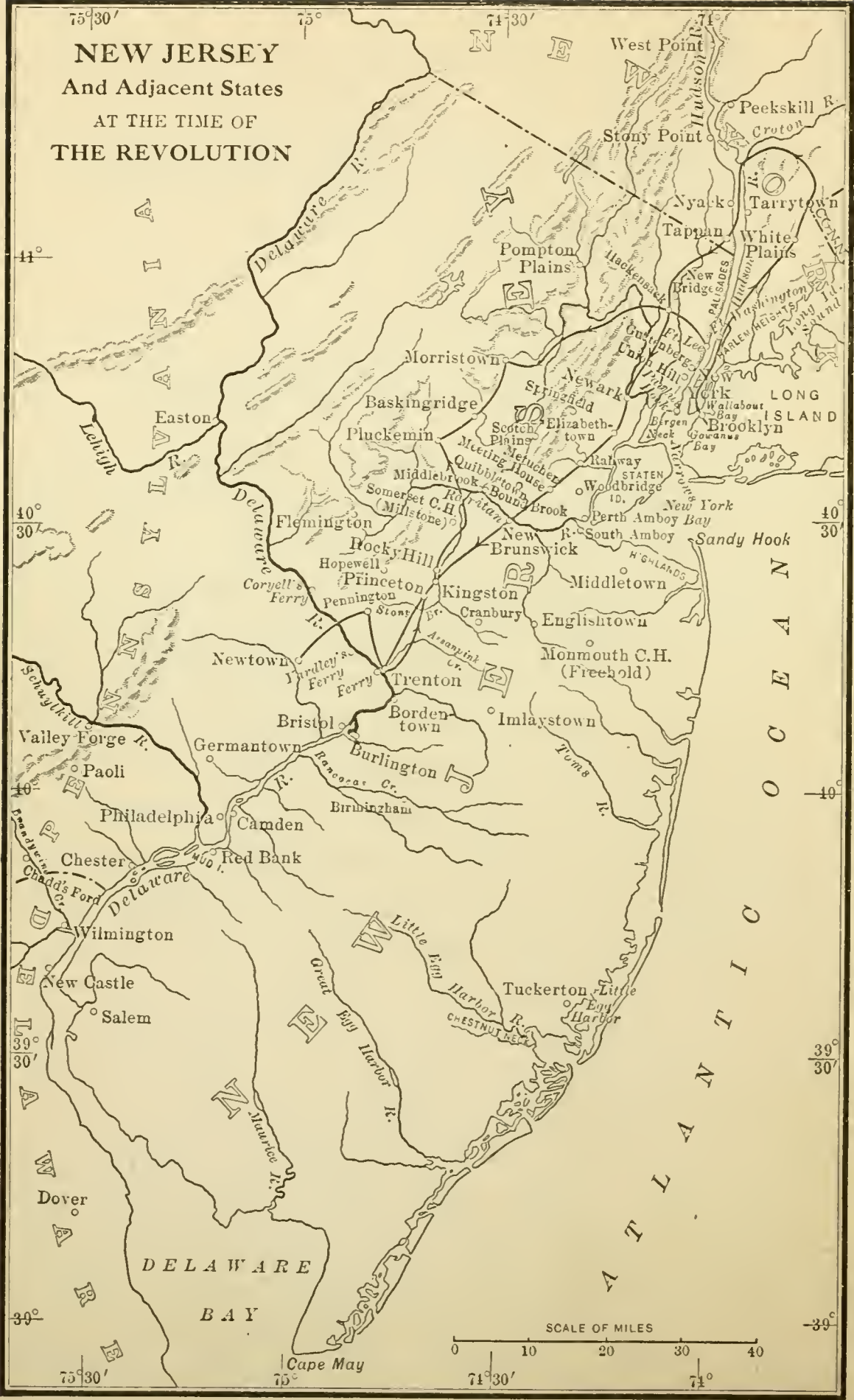
CHAPTER V

“THE WAR PATH OF THE REVOLUTION”

IT has been said that the American Revolution was the work of an aggressive minority. Had a free vote been taken in the thirteen colonies at any time before the Declaration of Independence, or at more than one period thereafter, the majority probably would have decided against the war. This majority, however, had less vigor than the minority and was overborne by it. Even those who took up arms did so at first with the aim of forcing the mother country to grant just terms to the colonies. Had England allowed them to send their representatives to Parliament, in which body they would have had a voice in the making of laws that affected the Americans, and had she been fair in her treatment of them, there would have been no armed revolt. The Revolution would have been postponed for a long time and then most likely it would have been a peaceful separation.

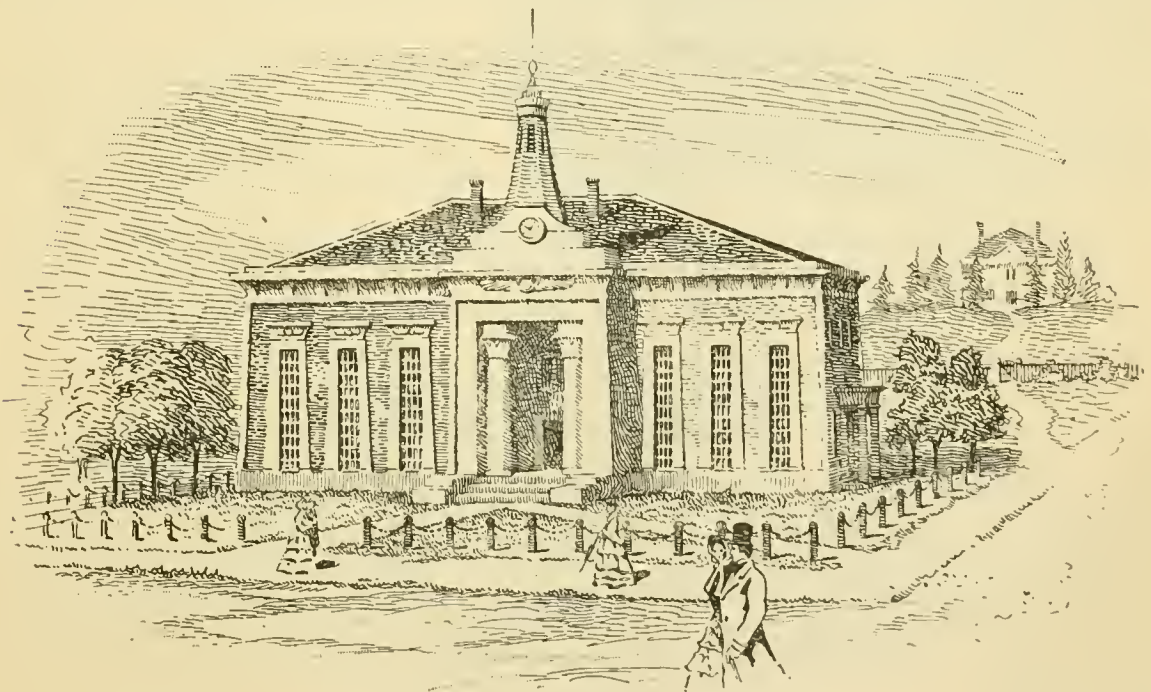
But never were people more justified in rebelling than our forefathers. Their pleas were so reasonable that many of the leading men in England favored them. Thus there was a cleavage in the parties on both sides of the ocean. King George III., personally good and conscientious, was bigoted to the last degree. He was a

NEW JERSEY
 And Adjacent States
 AT THE TIME OF
 THE REVOLUTION



firm believer in the theory that kings rule by “divine right” and are not accountable to their subjects for their acts. Could the unfortunate monarch have freed himself of this fatal error, the course of history would have been changed.

Moreover, the American Revolution was to teach Great Britain an impressive lesson that she has never forgotten. She learned the art of governing her colonies. Rarely since then has she committed the woeful blunder of deny-



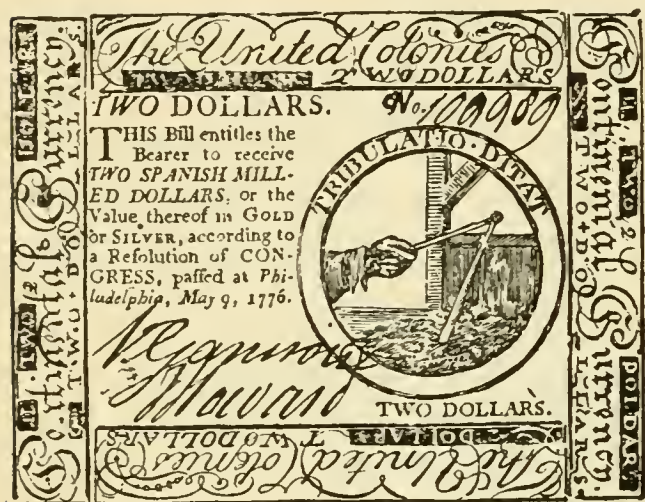
COURTHOUSE, NEWARK, N. J.

(From an old print)

ing to any of her children the measure of self-government, of liberty, conceded to those around her own hearthstone. This was the crux of modern liberty, and New Jersey was its arena. Our struggle for independence was as much a battle for civilization as was the affair at Runnymede.

On June 11, 1774, a meeting of citizens was held at Newark, and they agreed to address letters to every county in the province, urging each to appoint a committee of correspondence. It was decided also to hold a convention

at New Brunswick, on July 21. Similar action on the part of the other colonies furnished the members of the First Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia,



CONTINENTAL PAPER MONEY, 1776

September 5, 1774, with representatives from all the colonies except Georgia, where the loyalist governor prevented the election of delegates.¹ The proceedings were laid before the New Jersey assembly, January 24, 1775,

and, despite the violent opposition of Governor Franklin, were unanimously approved.

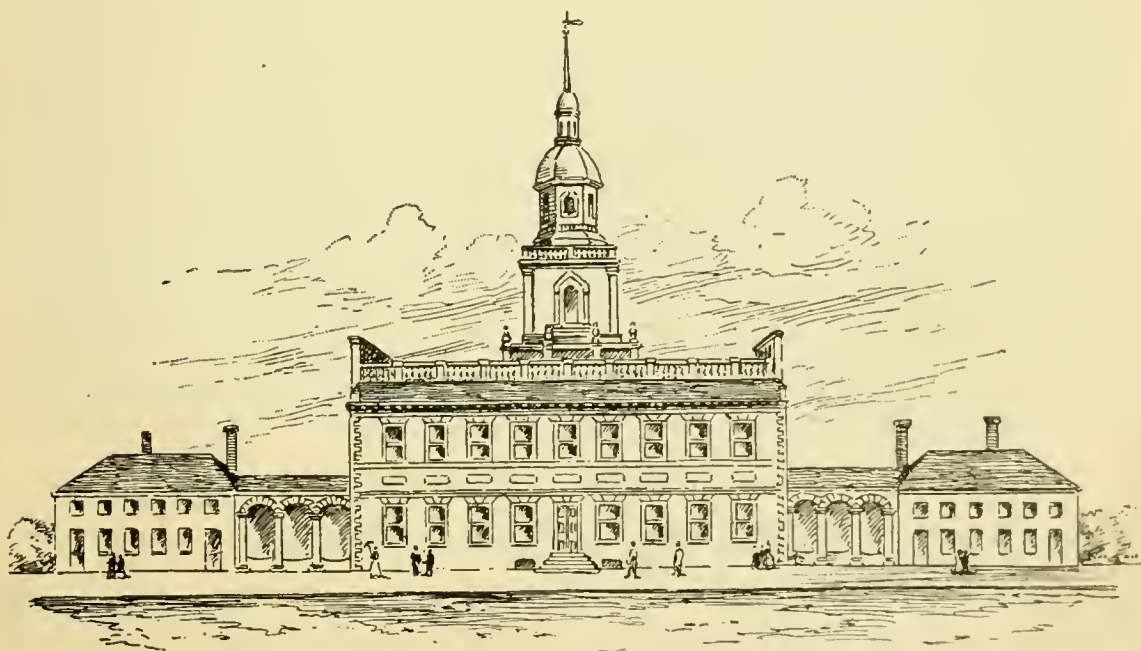
The Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia, May 10, 1775, about a month before the battle of Bunker Hill. It voted to issue \$3,000,000 in paper money for carrying on the war, and to raise a force of twenty thousand men. George Washington was appointed commander in chief.

Governor Franklin convened the assembly at Burlington, May 15. The committee of correspondence, named by the convention at Newark, directed the chairman to call a second provincial convention at Trenton, May 23, 1775.

This body met on the date named, styling itself "The Provincial Congress of New Jersey," and assumed supreme authority over the province. A provincial congress was

¹ The members of the New Jersey general committee of correspondence were: William Peartree Smith, John Chetwood, Isaac Ogden, Joseph Borden, Robert Field, Isaac Pierson, Isaac Smith, Samuel Tucker, Abraham Hunt, and Hendrick Fisher.

a convention held within a province or colony, and its functions were confined of necessity to that particular province. An assemblage of representatives from all the colonies, called together to act for the general good, formed a continental congress. A message was sent to the Continental Congress, sitting in Philadelphia, that the Jersey men pledged themselves to the common cause of America and held themselves ready to follow the lead of



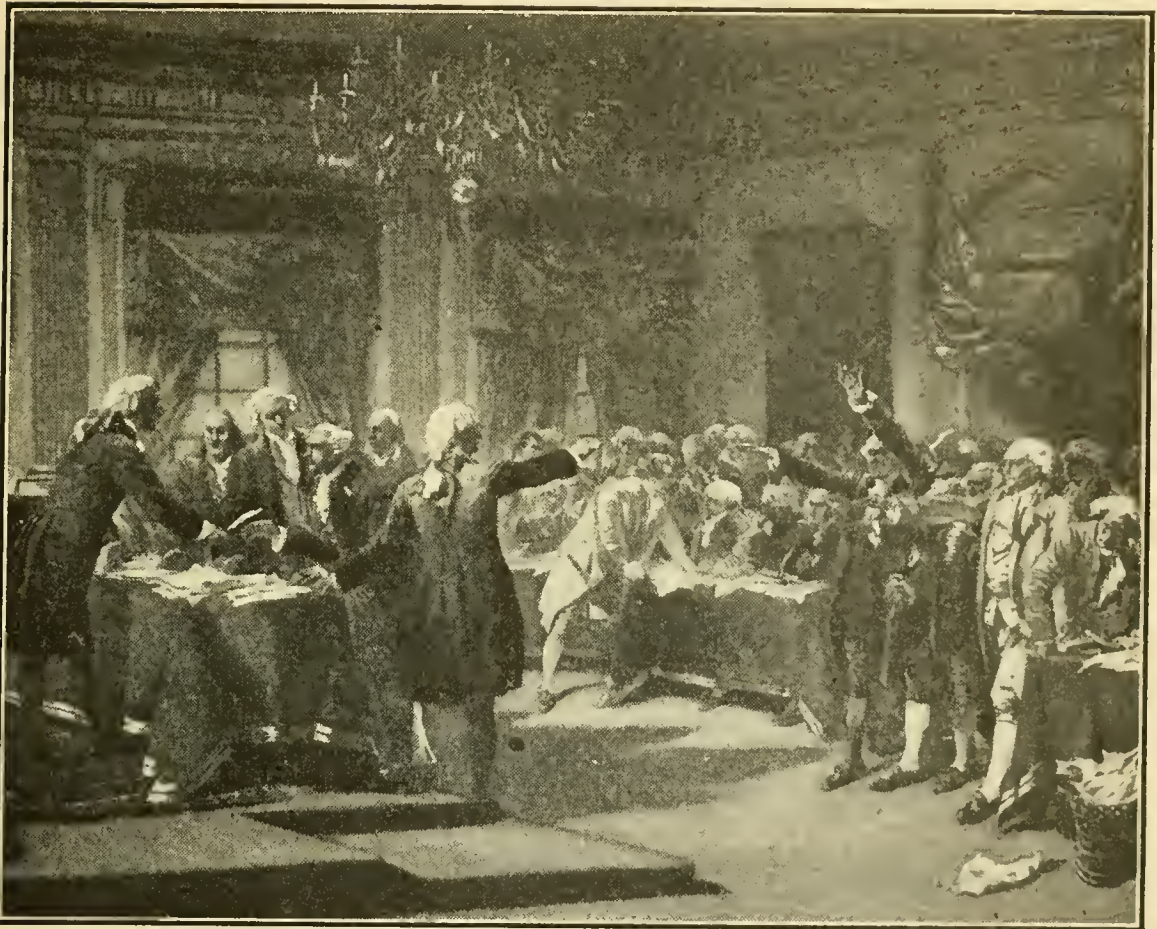
CITY HALL, PHILADELPHIA

the greater Congress. Steps were taken to organize the militia, and the issue of £10,000 in bills of credit was ordered. In August the Provincial Congress arranged for a more effective organization of the militia and the collection of taxes. Fifty-four companies, of sixty-four men each, were formed into ten battalions, and Philemon Dickinson and William Livingston were appointed brigadier generals to command them. A Committee of Safety and a provincial treasurer having been chosen, the Congress adjourned.

The Provincial Congress met again October 3, and ordered the enlistment of two regiments of regulars, one to be commanded by William Maxwell, and the other by William Alexander, more generally known as Lord Stirling. To meet the expenses thus incurred, provincial bills to the amount of £30,000 were issued. The legislature was convened by Governor Franklin, November 16, but, without transacting any important business, he prorogued it the following month, to meet January 3, 1776. It never came together again, and thus ended royal authority in New Jersey.

The leading part taken by our State in the War for Independence, and the decisive battles fought on our soil, make it necessary to keep the features of the great struggle itself in mind. The location of New Jersey has caused it to be called "The War Path of the Revolution." Opening in Massachusetts, the scene of the conflict moved southward, shifting to New York and then to New Jersey, with the final triumph in Virginia. Thus our State became the highway of the armies, and the enemy were to meet their first real check between the Hudson and the Delaware.

At Cambridge, on July 3, 1775, Washington took command of the poorly armed and disciplined patriots. He pressed the siege of Boston so closely that General Howe withdrew from the city in the following March. In June, 1776, a British attack upon Charleston was repulsed, and the fourth of July, amid the ringing of bells and the shouts of joyous thousands, saw the adoption of the immortal Declaration of Independence. The New Jersey signers of the instrument were: Richard Stockton, Abraham Clark, John Hart, Francis Hopkinson, and John Witherspoon.



SIGNERS OF DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

As proof that the motive of the revolt at first was to gain justice rather than independence from England, it is to be noted that the Provincial Congress of New Jersey, while taking control of affairs, did not wholly cast off royal authority. The new Congress met at Burlington in June, and in response to petitions, a committee reported the form of a constitution, which was adopted. Its last article provided that it should become void when the king righted the wrongs of his American subjects. The greater Declaration, however, at Philadelphia, struck fire in the hearts of the Jerseymen, as it did among all the other colonies. The Provincial Congress took the title of "The Convention of the State of New Jersey," and declared the State independent of royal authority.

This convention was the State legislature, which now took up its work. The general election was ordered for August. Every voter was required to renounce under oath all allegiance to the king of England and pledge himself not to oppose the measures adopted by the Convention of the State or by the Continental Congress, but to be loyal to the government established by the people. William Livingston was chosen governor and was elected annually thereafter until his death in 1790.

New Jersey, like every State, was harassed by Tories. This caused continuous violence and bloodshed. The location of the State helped the woeful events. From the opening of the war to its close there were hostile armies, or powerful bands, within its borders, and neighbors fought neighbors with the ferocity shown in the border States during the Civil War. Moreover, the Quakers, from principle, were opposed to violence, and the situation became distressing to the last degree.

Governor Franklin was at the head of the virulent loyalists. When he called the legislature together to take measures to stem the rising tide of rebellion, that body replied by declaring him an enemy of the country. He was arrested and refused to give his parole that he would not assume authority in the province. His arrest was reported to the Continental Congress. Still defiant, he was sent to Governor Trumbull of Connecticut, who took his parole. He then sailed for England, where he died in 1813. He had proposed a reconciliation with his illustrious father, who refused it.

For a time, New Jersey was generous to her domestic enemies. By resolution of the Provincial Congress, efforts

were made to convince these people of their wrongful course. These efforts having failed, the Tories were disarmed, and when unable to give sureties, were put under arrest. In the northeastern part of the State and on Long Island they organized, openly avowed their purpose of aiding the British in their conquest of the country, and welcomed the invaders. The enemy offered protection to all who would take the oath of allegiance within sixty days, and promised relief of their grievances.

These measures nearly quenched the patriotic fires in the northern part of the State. The only troops which offered any real opposition to the enemy were several companies of militia, first commanded by General Wilson and afterward by General Dickinson. When the Tories banded together, pledged not to pay any taxes, and not to obey the orders of the provincial government, the latter, following the fable, stopped throwing grass and used stones. The militia of the different counties were ordered to arrest all who actively aided the enemy. Some of the offenders, when brought before the Committee of Safety, repented their course and were released. While a check was thus placed upon these enemies, they were not wholly repressed. More than once the militia had to be called upon to put down armed insurrections.

The legislature, when organized under the constitution, acted sternly toward the Tories. Heavy fines and imprisonment, and even the pillory, were the punishments inflicted for persistent breaking of the laws. Later, the act of June, 1777 confiscated the property of all who joined the enemies of the State. The following year the county commissioners were ordered to seize the property of every

person who had gone into the lines of the British army or given any help to it. Nothing could surpass the ferocity of the Tory refugees who raided New Jersey from Staten Island, where they were under shelter of the enemy. They made forays among their former neighbors, and the latter,



PUTTING DOWN TORY INSURRECTIONS

in self-defense, organized against them. The fights between the factions were merciless.

Knowing that the enemy meant to attack New York, Washington did all he could to strengthen its defenses. He gathered some twenty-seven thousand men, but they were badly equipped and poorly disciplined, with no more than half of them fit for duty. The British numbered thirty-two thousand well-armed and highly trained troops.

One fourth were Hessians, so called because they came from Hesse Cassel, in Germany, from whose ruler the king of England had hired them to help conquer his American colonies.

Near the close of August, 1776, the British commander crossed the Narrows to Long Island. The Brooklyn fortifications reached from Gowanus Bay to Wallabout, where nine thousand men were stationed under General Sullivan and Lord Stirling. General Greene, the next in military ability to Washington, was ill, and the fiery Putnam was sent by the chief to direct the defense. Two or three miles to the south were three roads, any one of which would have served the enemy. By a fatal oversight one of these was left open. The British swarmed over it, and the patriots were badly routed, with the loss of six hundred killed and a thousand prisoners, among whom were Generals Sullivan, Woodhull, and Lord Stirling. Had Howe shown any vigor, he would have captured the whole American army, including Washington, and thus stamped out the American Revolution at the beginning. But he was one of the most indolent of men, and felt so certain of victory, that he decided to wait and save the lives of many of his soldiers.

The adverse wind held back the enemy's fleet. A dense fog settled over Brooklyn, though it remained clear on the New York side. Hidden by this screen, the Americans stole out of Brooklyn unnoticed. The defeat on Long Island was the first of a series of disasters which threatened to destroy the American army. With his wretched inferior force, it was impossible for Washington to hold New York, and he fortified Harlem Heights. His army began crumbling to pieces. The short terms of enlistment

of many of the men ended, while hundreds who had still a few months to serve deserted.

In October, Howe, with a large force, many of whom were Hessians, marched against Washington, who called a council of war. It was so plain to every one that a battle was hopeless that all the troops were withdrawn, except the garrison of Fort Washington. Howe and Clinton attacked the position at White Plains. A brave resistance was made, but Washington was driven back to North-castle Heights. His assailants then turned and advanced against Fort Washington. With unutterable anguish, the chief saw that post forced to surrender, with two thousand soldiers of the Continental line and six hundred of the militia. Less than a week later, General Greene was forced out of Fort Lee, on the west bank of the Hudson. So hurried was his retreat to the main army at Hackensack that his men were able to take only their ammunition and firearms.

What was left of the patriot army was under the direct command of Washington, who had less than four thousand men fit for duty, with that number rapidly decreasing. The icy winds that howled through the Highlands set their rags fluttering and their teeth chattering. Blankets, shoes, and stockings were few, and those who shivered by the camp fires were gaunt with hunger. No successful defense could be offered, and while making a feint of throwing up intrenchments, the chief was getting ready to retreat upon the approach of the enemy.

The marvel is how this great man and his few devoted leaders kept heart amid circumstances that were enough to sink one into the depths of despair. Desertions never

stopped. General Schuyler, at Ticonderoga, was ordered to send aid to Washington, but most of his men had nearly completed their terms of enlistment and refused to serve longer. The same was true of General Mercer at Bergen Neck. General Charles Lee was still at White Plains, but by order of Washington he crossed the river on his way to join the main army.

The dismal retreat through New Jersey began November 21, with Lord Cornwallis and his much superior force in close pursuit. Arriving at Newark the next evening, Washington posted his troops, sent the sick to Morristown, and put forth every effort to add to his fast dissolving army. In response to his appeal the New Jersey legislature provided for the organization of four battalions of State troops, but they were not put into the field in time to take part in the historic events that were at hand. Congress urged enlistments, and nothing was left undone that could add to the strength of the forlorn band of patriots.

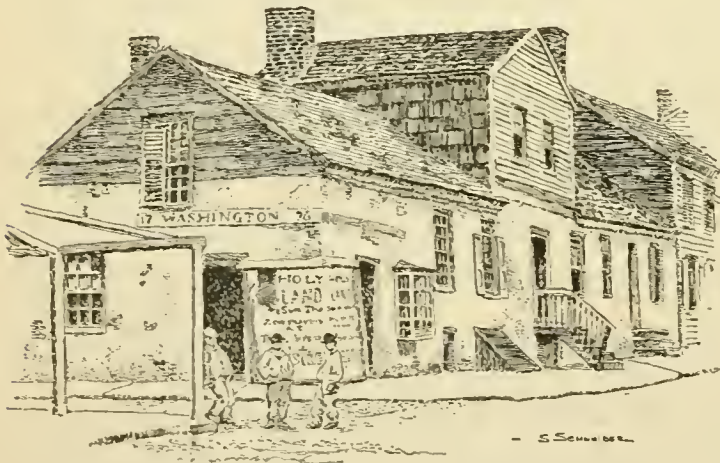
That no form of discouragement should be lacking, an urgent appeal came from Monmouth county, where there was a dangerous uprising of Tories. Colonel David Forman, whose home was in that section, was sent thither with his battalion, and was in such a state of rage that he stamped out the revolt with remorseless energy.

On the morning of November 28 Washington left Newark, with the enemy's advance guard entering at one end of the town, while he was passing out at the other. The Continentals divided into two columns, one going by way of Elizabethtown and Woodbridge, and the other through Springfield and Scotch Plains. The second column reached New Brunswick the next day and was joined by a

small force under Lord Stirling (exchanged a short time before), sent thither to guard the Raritan at that point, and the vicinity of Perth Amboy, against British incursions.

At this crisis, when the enemy in large numbers were known to be within striking distance, the militia of the flying camps of Maryland and New Jersey, whose terms of enlistment expired December 1, demanded their discharge. They would listen to no appeals and nearly every man went home. This action, with the endless stream of desertions, reduced the American army to less than three thousand effective men. The legislature at Princeton, learning of the approach of the enemy, adjourned to Trenton, then to Burlington, and finally decided to repair to their respective homes.

Upon reaching New Brunswick, Washington sent a force in advance, with orders to collect all the boats along the



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS, NEW
BRUNSWICK

Delaware River and to hold them on the Pennsylvania bank opposite Trenton. A second detachment followed on the same errand. When the British column appeared across the Raritan, the Americans crippled the

bridge, and withdrew under cover of a sharp artillery fire.

Washington entered Princeton on the morning of December 2, and at noon was in Trenton. There he learned that Cornwallis had halted at New Brunswick, in obedience

to orders from the sluggish Howe, who did not join him with his strong regiment until four days later. A force of fourteen hundred men under Lord Stirling was posted at Princeton to watch the enemy and to cover the passage of the Delaware by the main army. General Greene joined Stirling with twelve hundred men, and a few days later all the troops were at Trenton.

Before it was light on the morning of December 7, Howe marched from New Brunswick in two columns, one under Lord Cornwallis and the other under Colonel von Donop. Princeton was reached on the same day, but the columns were several hours apart in arriving. The enemy occupied the college buildings and the Presbyterian Church. During the several weeks that they stayed they played havoc with the houses of the leading patriots, such as the Reverend Dr. John Witherspoon, president of the college, and Richard Stockton. Both were signers of the Declaration of Independence, and the abuse the enemy heaped upon their homes proved that they knew the fact.

While the desertions never stopped, a few bodies of troops from Hunterdon and Middlesex counties joined the Continentals. Congress sent about a thousand men to Washington while he was at Trenton. He followed his rule of delaying his withdrawal as long as possible, first sending his sick and disabled men to Philadelphia. No sooner had General Howe entered the State than he issued a proclamation, promising a pardon and full protection to all who within sixty days would renounce the cause of independence and submit to the authority of Great Britain. Probably three thousand citizens of New Jersey availed themselves of this chance to save themselves and their property.

CHAPER VI

THE BATTLE OF TRENTON

THE breaking down of the Stony Brook bridge by the Americans, as they left Princeton, delayed the pursuing British column until the morning of December 8, and prevented it from gaining the rear of the Continentals. Along the bank of the Delaware, at the foot of Trenton, lay the boats that had taken the military stores across, and were waiting for the troops. Late in the afternoon, with the British approaching, the boats began putting out from the shore, both above and below the falls. All through the cheerless wintry night the work went on until, at dawn, the last shivering man leaped out and joined his comrades on the Pennsylvania shore.

There could not have been a narrower escape, for the British army were already entering the little straggling town. Their bright uniforms shone in the few streets, and the gay music of their bands rolled across the river. As soon as they appeared on the bank, the Americans opened with grapeshot; but no damage was done. A division of the enemy had gone up to Coryell's Ferry (Lambertville), twelve miles above Trenton, to seize the boats at that point. But no boats were there to seize and the British army had to wait for the river to freeze over. Washington stationed guards along the bank for many miles up and down stream, prepared to repel any attempt of the enemy to cross.

A force of fourteen hundred men, mostly Hessians, were posted at Trenton under Colonel Johann Gottlieb Rall. He was a brave officer, who held the Americans in contempt. He was noted for his fondness for military display and martial music, and for his indulgence in pleasures. The enemy placed a strong guard at Bordentown, and made their headquarters at New Brunswick, from which all the supplies of their army were distributed. Howe and Cornwallis, having arranged matters satisfactorily, went back to New York to enjoy themselves for the winter.

Philadelphia, the national capital, was the prize which the invaders had in view. We know that it was doomed to fall, but the mistake made by Howe and Cornwallis was in believing that its fall meant the collapse of the Revolution. So certain did Cornwallis feel on this point, that he had asked for and obtained a leave of absence to visit his home in England, when good reasons caused him to change his mind.

General Charles Lee, second in command, was loitering to so provoking a degree on his way from the Hudson that Washington sent him repeated orders to hasten, since his help was badly needed. These messages failed to reach Lee, and he still lagged. He was bitterly jealous of Washington, and nursed a scheme of making some brilliant dash that would win him the chief command of the Ameri-



HESSIAN SOLDIER

can army. While at a tavern near Baskingridge, Somerset county, Lee was surprised and taken prisoner by a scouting party of dragoons. His capture was looked upon as a severe blow to the patriot cause, but General Sullivan, the next in rank, immediately took command. He marched promptly to the Delaware, crossed at Easton, and delivered his two thousand men to Washington in the midst of a blinding snowstorm. Other reënforcements arrived at about the same time. On December 23 six thousand effectives were on guard for thirty miles along the Pennsylvania side of the river.

Washington, who read events and conditions with rare wisdom, saw that a blow must be struck at once for American liberty. The horizon showed hardly a gleam of hope. Thousands of those who had been the most clamorous for war were hurrying to the lines of the enemy for protection; the most ardent declared that it was useless to resist any longer; that it was folly to fight the inevitable. Congress, after declaring that it would never do such a thing, fled from Philadelphia.

Washington divided his army into three corps, one of which was stationed at Bristol, one at Trenton Ferry, opposite the town, and the third under his direct command at Yardley's Ferry, eight miles above Trenton. Colonel John Cadwalader, at Bristol, had command of about eighteen hundred men, and General James Ewing was in charge from Yardley's Ferry to the ferry at Bordentown. General Philemon Dickinson, with the New Jersey militia, was with Ewing, the two being posted at Yardley's Ferry and for a mile south. Leaving a guard over the camp equipage, Washington made preparations for crossing the Dela-

ware, with twenty-four hundred picked men, and attacking the Hessians at Trenton. He had reliable reports from his scouts and spies of the strength and disposition of the enemy.¹

Although repeated reports were brought to Colonel Rall, of threatening movements on the part of the Americans, he refused to believe there was any cause to fear them. He made his headquarters on Warren (then King) Street, in a house nearly opposite the Episcopal Church (still standing and much enlarged). The Hessian force was scattered through the town. Colonel Rall was fond of visiting the house of Abraham Hunt, the principal merchant and the postmaster of Trenton, who, although a patriot, knew when it was prudent to seem neutral. His home was widely celebrated for its hospitality.

Hunt's house stood on the corner of Warren and State streets (then King and Second), and there Colonel Rall was a guest on Christmas night, 1776. After a good dinner, the two sat for a long time in a comfortable room which was the more delightful because of its contrast with the cold outside. The sleet and hail rattled against the window panes, while the roaring wood fire filled the room with golden warmth. Host and guest were in high spirits, and were in the midst of a merry time when a sharp knock sounded on the door. Hunt's negro servant an-

¹ The most famous of these spies was John Honeyman of Somerset county. He was willing to be looked upon by his neighbors as a despicable traitor, to place his family in peril, and to incur the risk of the hangman's halter again and again that he might get information for Washington, who was the only person that knew his real character. Honeyman's services were of the highest value. There is no doubt that it was what he told the chief that caused the attack on Trenton. It is a pleasure to record that Honeyman, at the close of the war, was fully vindicated, and lived, honored and respected, to his ninety-fourth year.

swered and saw a well-known Tory farmer, standing outside in the wintry storm. He said he had been searching through the town for Colonel Rall, and, learning that he was at Abraham Hunt's, demanded to see him at once upon most important business. The servant, fearing his master's displeasure at interruption by the caller, urged the latter to leave his message with him. The farmer thereupon stepped under the dim light in the hall, took out a piece of paper, and hastily penciled a few lines on it.

"Will you see that Colonel Rall gets that without a moment's delay?" he sharply asked the servant, as he folded the paper and handed it to him.

"I'll give it to him right away, sah," answered the servant.

"Tell him to read it at once; the business cannot wait."

"Yes, sah; I'll tell him."

The Tory hurried away in the howling night, the servant closed the door and walked back into the glowing room, where Hunt and Rall were in the midst of an animated conversation. In answer to the inquiring looks of the two, the servant told what had taken place and handed the folded piece of paper to the officer, who carelessly slipped it into his pocket, saying he would read it in a few minutes. Absorbed, however, in an interesting discussion, the colonel soon forgot all about the note. Perhaps Abraham Hunt had also forgotten the little incident; possibly, with a suspicion of its meaning, he remembered, but took care not to remind his guest of the message. Be that as it may, Colonel Rall kept in his pocket unread the note which told him a strong force

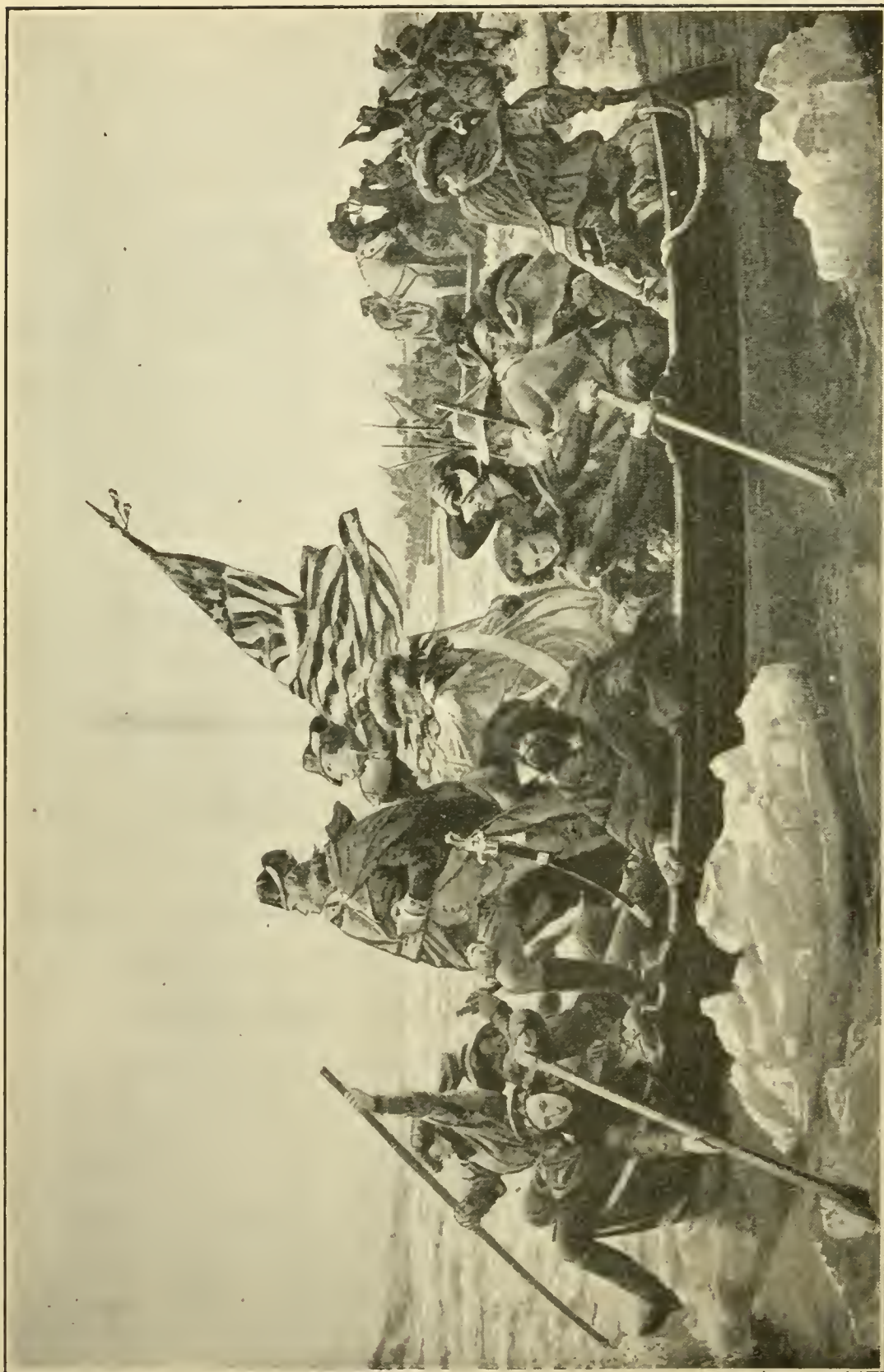
of Americans was rapidly approaching Trenton, and must soon reach the town.

By the middle of Christmas afternoon all the troops that were to take part in the attack upon Trenton were in motion. It was thought that the infantry and several companies of cavalry and artillery, including eighteen cannon and howitzers, could be ferried over by midnight, which would give time to reach the town by daybreak. The river at this point is about a fifth of a mile wide, and had been clear of ice until nearly noon on Christmas day. Then masses began to appear in the swift current, and the weather remained piercingly cold.

In the dusk of early evening the troops moved down the river bank, ready to embark upon the difficult passage. Washington sat on his horse, watching each boat as it filled and was pushed out into the current. The rushing bowlders of ice increased in number and in size. They ground and crunched together, and struck the craft so violently that they must have been overturned but for Colonel John Glover's regiment of sailors and fishermen from Marblehead, Massachusetts. These hardy fellows displayed a skill that could not have been surpassed. So laborious was the passage, that it was three o'clock before the whole body of men stood upon the New Jersey shore, and another hour passed ere the march was begun to Trenton. During these preparations Washington sat on an old beehive and watched the movements.

No scene could have been more dismal: The weather was of arctic severity, the ground was covered with snow, the roads were slippery with ice, and the sleet, driven by the fierce wind, struck the men like fine bird shot. The

WASHINGTON'S TROOPS CROSSING THE DELAWARE



soldiers were wretchedly clad, and the shoes of many were so tattered that they were but flapping pieces of leather, through which the bare feet were cut and wounded by the flinty bits of ice. Had any one walked behind that patriot band, when light came, he would have seen every rod of the journey crimsoned by bloody footprints; for, incredible as it sounds, it is a fact that scores of the privates had no protection whatever for their feet, at a time, too, when the ground was covered with ice and snow. But not a man of them was afraid or shrank from the work.

A mile from the river the column reached Bear Tavern, and three miles farther came to the hamlet of Birmingham. There a halt was made while the soldiers swallowed a few mouthfuls of food. Without leaving his saddle, Washington gratefully partook of bread and meat passed up to him by a hospitable farmer. When, a short time after, the order was given to resume the march, several hundred of the men lay sound asleep at the side of the road.

The column was now divided and different routes were taken to Trenton. Two roads, substantially parallel, lead from Birmingham to the town. One closely follows the river and enters the lower end of Trenton. This was the course taken by General Sullivan, whose division was composed of the brigades of General St. Clair, Colonels Glover and Sargent, and four battalions. The other division was under General Greene and included the brigades of Generals Stephen, Mercer, Lord Stirling, and De Ferroy, with Captain Morris's Philadelphia light horse and three batteries. Washington accompanied this division,

which kept to the well-known "Scotch Road," that joins the highway connecting Pennington and Trenton some eight miles apart. This route was a trifle longer than that taken by Sullivan and led into the upper end of the town, the length of neither road being more than five miles.¹

The course of the Scotch Road is nearly at right angles to the Pennington pike. As the "ragged Continentals" drew near the main highway, signs of dawn began to appear. Lights twinkled in the windows of the farmers' houses, and the wondering inmates, peeping out, saw more than a thousand men straggling briskly over the icy road, the mounted officers in the lead, the ponderous cannon lumbering over the deep ruts, and the bobbing heads of the men bent to the hail, which often stung their red faces, but fortunately most of the time struck their backs. It was hard on the flapping bits of leather which served for shoes, and harder still on the bleeding feet protected by neither shoe nor stocking.

The march of the grim veterans was silent, for this was a secret expedition. Every footman and horseman that appeared was gathered in, none being allowed to pass the little army to carry warning to the Hessians, who as yet did not dream of danger. We know, however, that one

¹ Washington had tried to get twelve men to ride on horseback in front of his troops, garbed as farmers and without weapons, and to reconnoiter and pick up all the information possible about the enemy. Only three volunteered for this dangerous service, — David Lanning of Trenton, and John Muirhead and John Guild of Hopewell. The following acted as guides and marched with the army: Colonel Joseph Phillips, Captain Philip Phillips, and Adjutant Elias Phillips, of Lawrenceville, Joseph Inslee, Edon Burroughs, Stephen Burroughs, Ephraim Woolsey, and Henry Simmonds, of Hopewell, and Captain John Mott, Amos Scudder, and William Green of Trenton.

Tory had galloped into Trenton hours before with word to Colonel Rall, who forgot to read the note upon which hung such momentous issues.

The bleak morning with its spitting sleet had broken when the patriots came out from the Scotch Road into the Pennington highway and quickened their pace for the town that was only a mile away. When the small wooden houses were seen, with wisps of smoke curling upward from the chimneys, Washington faced about in his saddle and waved his sword:—

“Yonder, my brave fellows, are the enemies of your country! Remember what you are fighting for!”

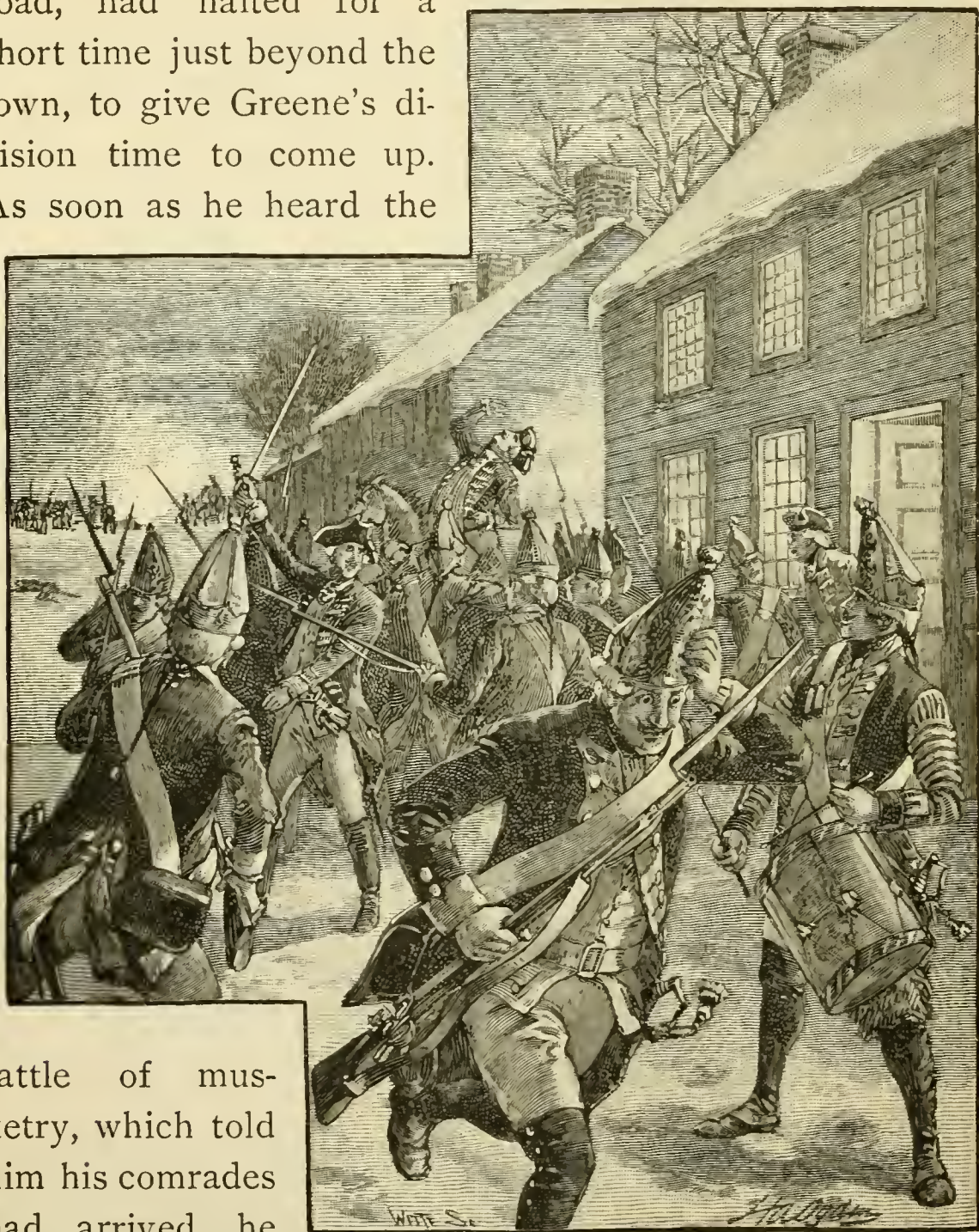
Although Colonel Rall was guilty of gross neglect, his pickets, of course, covered every approach to Trenton. Those posted on the Pennington road exchanged shots with the Americans, and then, discovering the unexpected numbers of their enemies, turned and ran off at full speed. A lieutenant and private fell mortally wounded. The Continentals, charging the guard, came upon the dying officer, lying in the snow at the side of the road. He was a handsome, beardless youth, under twenty years of age, and was suffering so intensely that many were touched at the sight. Captain Morris, of the Philadelphia light horse, checked his steed, and looking down at the poor fellow asked:—

“Cannot something be done for him?”

“This is no time for sympathy,” sharply reproved General Greene; “we have more important business in hand.”

The hurraing troops went to the head of the town at utmost speed. A guard was thrown out to prevent the

Hessians from escaping to the north, and the Americans pressed the attack. General Sullivan, following the river road, had halted for a short time just beyond the town, to give Greene's division time to come up. As soon as he heard the



rattle of musketry, which told him his comrades had arrived, he dashed forward,

BATTLE OF TRENTON

drove in the Hessian picket, and attacked with vigor. Thus the volley firing and the boom of cannon were heard from the north and south ends of the town, and the terri-

fied Hessians found themselves caught between two fires. The confusion was great, but they did all that was possible in the circumstances, falling back, and using everything they could in the way of shelter. The Americans, however, pushed them so hard, that they were sent skurrying from one point to another, only to be routed out and driven still farther.

The assailants closed in on every hand, many firing from houses at the panic-stricken enemy, who at first supposed they were attacked by only a scouting party. They soon saw their mistake; the flashes of musketry from the fast-advancing platoons at the head of Warren and Greene streets were quickly joined by the crash of cannon, and the same fearful music throbbed to the south. The Americans seemed to leap up at every point, while others from the upper windows of the houses helped to confuse the Hessians, who were running here, there, and everywhere, not knowing whither to turn, but none the less putting up a brave fight.

We left Colonel Rall at the house of the rich merchant, Abraham Hunt, in front of the roaring wood fire which filled the room with genial warmth, while the shotlike hail rattled outside. In the small hours the officer bade his host good night, and made his way to his headquarters on Warren Street. This was a modest structure, afterward known as Wilson's Tavern, standing on the present site of the Catholic Cathedral. When the Colonel reached his bed, he sank into so deep a sleep, that he was not disturbed even by the opening tumult on the Pennington road. His adjutant's quarters were in the next building, and he was the first officer who heard the firing and suspected its

meaning. Before this, he had called twice on his superior, but found him asleep. Hearing the musketry, the adjutant now ran across the street and sent a detachment to the help of the picket that had been attacked. Then he dashed back to Rall's house and banged on the door.

An upper window was raised, and the Colonel thrust out his head.

"What's the matter?"

"Haven't you heard the firing?"

"I will be down in a minute," replied Rall, as he vanished from sight.

There is no questioning the courage of the Hessian colonel. Sooner than might be supposed possible, he hurried out, buttoning his uniform as he ran, and dashed right into the shots that were hurtling down the street from the head of the town. His adjutant urged other officers to the utmost haste in forming the troops for resistance to the attack. Appealed to while mounting his horse, Rall directed the formation of a regiment in the rear of the English church. He then galloped down the street toward the quarters of the regiment, named for himself, which was hurriedly forming. He met one of the battalions, and wheeling, placed himself at its head. The artillery fire at the top of the street scattered the guard at the head of Rall's battalion and killed several men.

It is not strange that in the confusion Rall was somewhat bewildered. The effectiveness of the American aim is shown by the fact that among the eighteen Hessians who opened fire, eight were killed and wounded before six shots were fired, and in addition five horses were slain.

Although formations were made at different points, the Hessians were continually broken and scattered by the attack that was pressed from every direction. The demoralizing effect of the American assault caused Lord Stirling to order a charge. It was led by Captain Washington (no relation of the General), and a young lieutenant, only eighteen years old. In a twinkling the two brass three-pounders of Rall's regiment were captured and turned against the fleeing Hessians. Both officers were wounded, though not severely. The name of the lieutenant was James Monroe, afterwards President of the United States.



TRENTON MONUMENT

The battle of Trenton, from the driving in of the pickets to the surrender, lasted about two hours; the actual fighting was probably less than forty-five minutes. When all hope was gone, the Rall regiment and another surrendered. The good news was hurried to Washington, who was on the high ground at the head of town. Tidings of the full surrender quickly followed.

Colonel Rall was wounded in the hand early in the

fight. Although the hurt bled a good deal, it did not disable him, and he continued to gallop hither and thither and to urge his men to stand firm. When finally he was compelled to order a retreat toward an apple orchard, he received two mortal wounds in the side and fell helpless from his horse. He lay for a few minutes, and then, with the help of two soldiers, painfully arose, and with much suffering slowly made his way into the little Methodist Church near at hand, where his assistants lowered him upon one of the benches. General Washington, having been told of the surrender of the remaining troops, — except a few Hessians who had escaped in the direction of Bordentown, — was riding down Warren Street, as Colonel Rall was being carried to his quarters.

When the attendants were removing the clothing from the wounded officer, the note of the Tory, written the night before, was brought to light. The Colonel asked that it be read to him. "Ah," said he, "if I had not forgotten that, I should not be here."

Generals Washington and Greene called some time later and offered their sympathy, taking at the same time Rall's parole of honor. He begged Washington to treat his men kindly, and was reassured on that point. Colonel Rall died the following evening. He was buried in the graveyard of the First Presbyterian Church on State Street, but no stone marks the last resting place of the unfortunate officer.

The Hessian losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners at Trenton were: one colonel, three majors, four captains, eight lieutenants, twelve ensigns, two surgeons, ninety-two sergeants, twenty drummers, nine musicians, twenty-

five officers' servants, seven hundred and forty rank and file ; total, nine hundred and eighteen. Of these twenty-two were killed and eighty-four wounded. Later, a number of Hessians, who were concealed by their Tory friends, were discovered, so that the list of prisoners was swelled to one thousand. The spoils captured were six cannon, three ammunition wagons, several wagon loads of baggage, forty horses, one thousand arms and accouterments, and fifteen army colors.

Captain Washington and Lieutenant James Monroe were the only American officers wounded. Two privates were also hurt, but they and the officers fully recovered. It is stated by some that besides these four, two men were frozen to death, but the statement has never been verified.

The success was a thrilling one for the patriot cause, but Washington and his men were in great danger. A powerful British force was at Princeton, only ten miles away, and another at Bordentown, still nearer. At a council of the officers, therefore, it was decided to return to the Pennsylvania shore with the least possible delay. The wounded prisoners were paroled and left in Trenton, and the Continentals marched up the river road early in the afternoon to where the boats were held under guard. The passage of the river was safely made, though the danger and difficulty seemed greater than before. The cutting sleet had hardly ceased for twenty-four hours, and the weather was so cold that three soldiers were frozen to death on the passage. The next day a thousand men were reported unfit for duty.

Washington's headquarters were in a farmhouse near

Newtown, five miles from the river. It is an interesting fact that many of the Hessian prisoners refused to fight any more against the Americans. A considerable number escaped to Pennsylvania and settled there. The chief sent most of them to Virginia, then far from the seat of war. They were quartered in barracks in a fertile section of Fauquier county, where they were glad to stay for the rest of their lives. They squatted upon the land, married girls from the mountain regions, and were fully content. The nondescript settlement of several hundred souls is as isolated from the rest of the State as if it lay in the heart of Africa. As they live wholly to themselves, obeying no laws but their own, there is an appropriateness in the name "Free State," by which the community is generally known.

CHAPTER VII

THE BATTLE OF PRINCETON

IN some respects the victory at Trenton was the most important battle of the Revolution. The first glow of American patriotism had given place to indifference or despair in many quarters. Disasters had followed one another with terrifying swiftness, and the ragged Continentals were gaunt and weak from starvation. The gloom closed in on every hand. It seemed as if all except Washington and a few of his comrades had abandoned hope. Had the attack at Trenton failed, the war for independence no doubt would have stopped then and there. It was a decisive victory for the cause of American freedom.

When the news of the brilliant feat of arms spread throughout the young States, they were thrilled with joy. Because many of the people in Philadelphia could not believe the tidings, Washington convinced them by parading a large number of his prisoners on the streets of the capital. Congress took heart and hurried recruits to the little army that was in sore need of them.

There are some who even at this late day smile at the thought of calling the Trenton affair a battle. It is not absolutely certain that any Americans were killed, though several were wounded, while about a score of the enemy were slain. Such collisions are generally called skirmishes, but the importance of a battle rests not upon the number

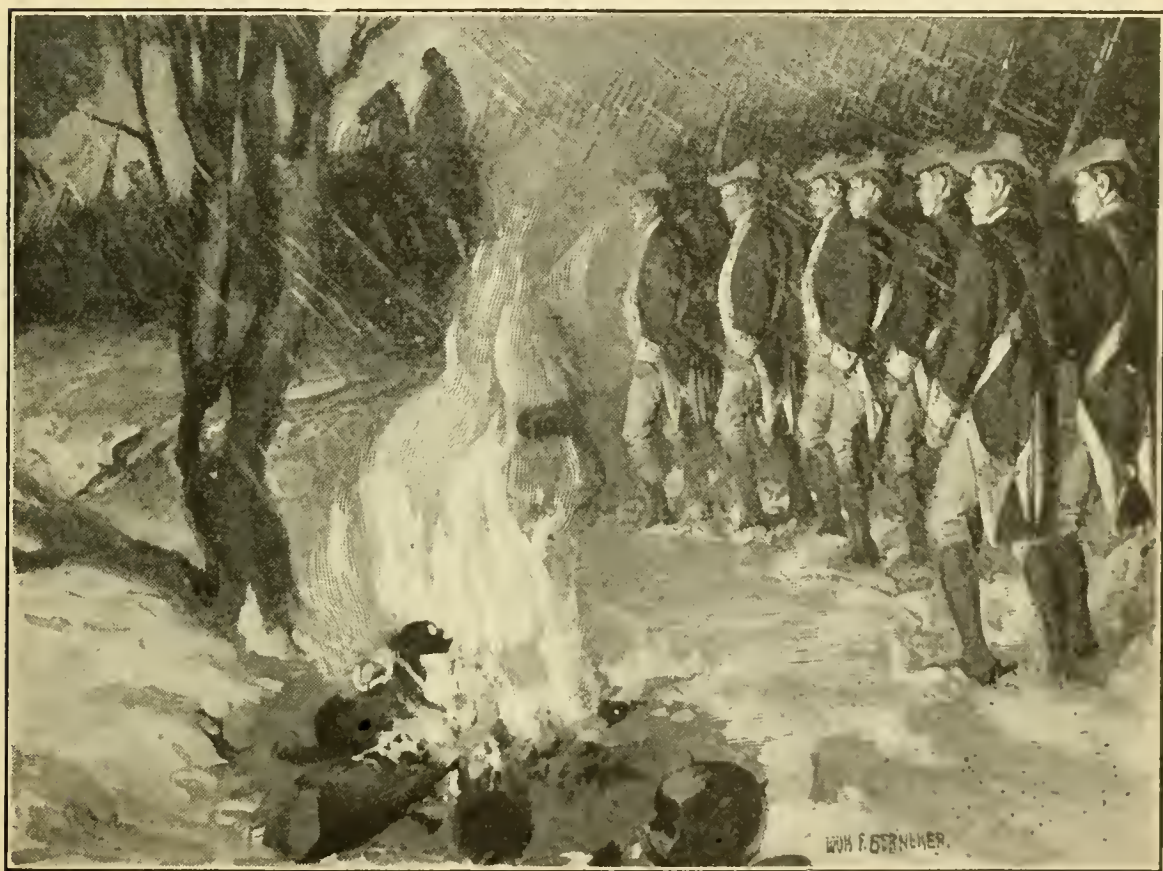
slain. The capture of Quebec ranks among the decisive battles of history, because it changed the face of a continent; although the number killed and wounded among the English and French was trifling when compared with the losses in many of the engagements of our Civil War, which brought no special results. So it is that the fight at Trenton must be judged by its momentous effect upon the struggle for independence.¹

As has been stated, Washington recrossed the Delaware with his prisoners to Pennsylvania, at the same place where he had crossed when on his way to Trenton. He was so encouraged by his success that he was hopeful of breaking the enemy's line of communication, threatening them at New Brunswick, and thus checking their advance upon Philadelphia. He therefore came back to Trenton, on the 30th of December. This time his men walked over on the ice. All was quiet until January 2. Late on the afternoon of that day, a strong British force marched down from Princeton to attack the Americans. Washington drew up his men on the south side of the bridge over the Assanpink. The British charged three times, but were driven back by the destructive musketry and artillery fire of the Americans, and finally gave up the attempt. The loss of the British amounted to several score.

The situation of Washington and his army became critical to the last degree. Cornwallis, the best of the British generals, was hurrying from Princeton, with a well-disciplined and much larger force; a thaw had caused the Delaware to break up and the river was filled with enor-

¹When Mercer county was formed in 1838, a leading citizen of Trenton insisted that it should be called "Pivot County," because, as he declared, within its bounds despair and failure swung round to hope and success.

mous masses of ice, tumbling and crunching over one another. The most powerful boat would have been crushed before it could have pushed from shore. It was impossible to take refuge in Pennsylvania again, and the ragged Continentals could not withstand the assault of the veteran troops. It looked as if nothing could save the patriots from capture or destruction.



WASHINGTON OUTWITTING THE BRITISH

All through that still, cold night, the British sentinels, pacing to and fro, on one side of the Assanpink, saw the American sentinels doing the same on the other bank. They noted that the patriot guard had been doubled, and by the camp fires' flickering light they caught glimpses of shadowy figures throwing up an intrenchment. Seem-

ingly the Americans were preparing for the last desperate stand.

The exultant Cornwallis was impatient for the coming day. He was sure he had trapped the fox at last, and that his furlough had been merely postponed for a few weeks. He thought that he would speedily bag his game, and that this would be the end of all thought of American independence.

The morning dawned sunshiny and keen. Hardly had it begun to grow light in the east, when the British commander was startled by the faint boom of cannon. He listened. The reports grew more rapid, and, to his consternation, they came from behind him, that is, from the direction of Princeton!

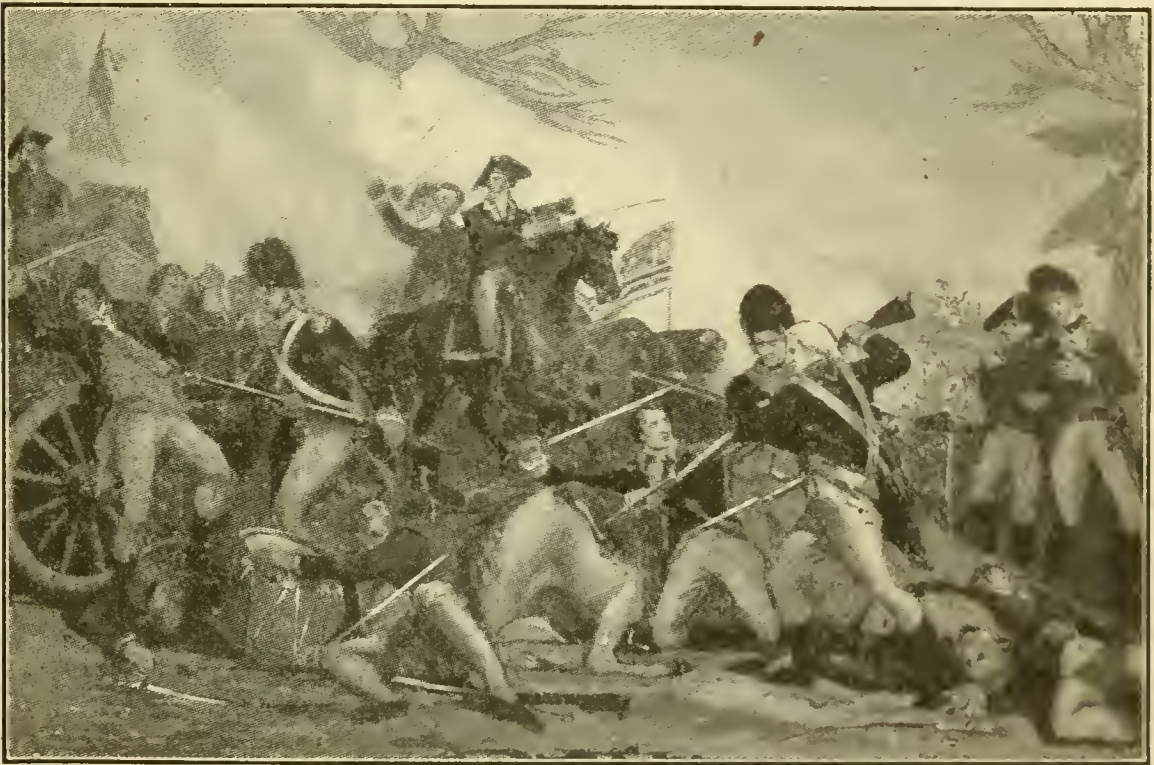
Cornwallis knew what it meant. Instead of being just across the Assanpink, waiting to be annihilated, Washington had made a roundabout march in the night, and was at that moment attacking the British post at Princeton. The fox had eluded the trap set for him. The chagrined commander gathered his troops, and set out in hot haste for the college town, hoping still to reach and destroy the American army.

The latter came in sight of Princeton at sunrise. The main column pushed on to the town, while General Mercer, with some three hundred and fifty men, started to take possession of the bridge on the road leading to Trenton. His purpose was to head off the fugitives from Princeton and to protect the rear of the army against Cornwallis, who, it was known, would before long arrive from the south.

A brigade of the enemy, under Lieutenant Colonel Maw-

hood, had quartered in Princeton the previous night, and one of the regiments crossed the bridge over Stony Brook before it saw the Americans. Mawhood immediately recrossed the bridge, and then observed Mercer and his detachment marching up the stream towards the bridge a fourth of a mile away.

The two forces raced for the high ground on the right. The Americans gained a worm fence first and fired a volley



ATTACK ON MERCER'S TROOPS AT PRINCETON

from behind it into the approaching enemy, already near at hand. The English returned the fire and charged. The patriots fired twice again, but being armed only with rifles, broke and ran.

When he heard the firing, Washington ordered the Pennsylvania militia to support General Mercer, and he led them in person with two pieces of artillery. The enemy had pursued Mercer until they saw, for the first time,

the approaching Continentals. They halted, brought up their artillery, and tried to capture the American battery. Before a sharp fire of grapeshot and the advance of another regiment from the rear of the column, the enemy began retreating over the fields to the north of Stony Brook. They left their artillery behind, but the captors, having no horses, could not carry it off. Two British regiments resisted for a short time at the ravine and then fled to the college building. They soon abandoned that, losing nearly a hundred men, besides having four hundred taken prisoners and wounded. The loss of the Americans was only twenty-five or thirty, but among the dead were some of the best officers of the army, — Colonels Haslet and Potter, Major Morris, and Captains Shippen, Fleming, and Neal.

General Hugh Mercer was a brilliant leader and among the bravest of the brave. Upon reaching the rail fence, he dismounted from his wounded horse and was thus thrown to the rear. While he was trying to rally his men, they gave way, and, being surrounded, he put himself at bay. Observing his rank, the soldiers shouted: —

“Call for quarter, you rebel!”

Mercer struck at the nearest man, but, being immediately bayoneted, he sank to the ground. Believing him dead, the enemy hurried on. Mercer lay where he had fallen until the battle was over, when two of his aids assisted him to the house of Thomas Clark, where he was tenderly nursed by Miss Sarah Clark, of the Society of Friends, assisted by a colored woman.

The British having retreated to Princeton, a mile distant, and taken refuge in the college and Presbyterian Church,

which they used for barracks, Washington opened fire upon them with cannon. After a few shots, Captain James Moore of the militia and several men broke in a door and called upon the enemy to surrender. They instantly did so. Washington knew that Cornwallis was hurrying to the town from Trenton and he himself had no time to lose. He therefore took the parole of those unable to travel and hurried off with the remainder. Three miles out, at the hamlet of Kingston, the general officers held a consultation as they sat in their saddles.

All wished to press on to New Brunswick, attack the troops there, and seize the treasure and large amount of supplies, but the Americans were utterly worn out. They had been fighting at Trenton the day before, had marched all night, and fought again, and only a few had eaten anything for the past twenty-four hours. They were in rags, and though it was the dead of winter, many, as we know, were shoeless. The limit of endurance had been reached, and it was only merciful on the part of the chief when he turned the head of his little army toward Rocky Hill.

The baffled Cornwallis pressed his troops to the utmost, and reached Kingston shortly after the Americans had left. Not doubting that they were making for New Brunswick, he hurried through the hamlet and speedily struck the main highway. This was so frozen that it was almost impassable. His baggage wagons broke down, but, in his anxiety to save his valuable supplies and large amount of treasure, he left the vehicles in charge of a strong guard and hurried on. When his panting troops reached New Brunswick, they learned that not an American soldier had been within miles of the town.

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Late that dark, cold night, the guards in charge of the baggage wagons were startled by the flash and reports of guns from behind trees, and shouts seemingly from a thousand throats. They dashed off in a panic with a few wagons, leaving the others to what they believed was the whole American army. As a matter of fact, however, there were less than twenty soldiers who had played the clever trick upon them. The prize consisted of woolen clothing, and nothing could have been more welcome to the shivering troops.

Although elated by his brilliant successes, Washington was saddened by the loss of so many brave officers. He grieved especially for General Mercer, who had been his comrade in the French and Indian War, and whom he held in warm regard. Great, therefore, was his relief, when he learned that his friend, despite his fearful hurts, was still alive. He instantly sent his nephew, Major Lewis, with a flag and letter to Lord Cornwallis, asking that all possible attention be given to the general, and that Major Lewis be permitted to remain with him and minister to his wants. Cornwallis complied with both requests, and ordered his staff surgeon to attend General Mercer. We quote from "Custis's Recollections":—

"Upon an examination of the wounds the British surgeon observed that although they were many and severe, he was disposed to believe they were not dangerous. Mercer, bred to the profession of an army surgeon in Europe, said to young Lewis: 'Raise my right arm, George, and this gentleman will then discover the smallest of my wounds, which will prove the most fatal. Yes, sir, that is the fellow that will soon do my business.' He lan-

guished until the 12th and expired in the arms of Lewis, admired and lamented by the whole army. During this period he exonerated his enemies from the accusation of having bayoneted a general officer, after he had surrendered his sword and had become a prisoner of war, declaring that he only relinquished his sword when his arm became powerless to wield it."

The last of the Continental army reached Somerset Court House (Millstone), Somerset county, late at night, and lodged their prisoners in jail. To show the forlorn and weary condition of the captors it is stated that many of them had hardly turned the massive doors upon the prisoners, when they sank down on the frozen ground, and without so much as a blanket, fell into a sound sleep which lasted until sunrise.

The army left Millstone January 4, halted two days at Pluckemin, and then marched to the highlands of Morris county, where it went into winter quarters. Comfortable huts were put up and the recruiting and reorganization of the army for the spring campaign was pushed with vigor. The army remained in Morristown until the close of the following May.

The strategy and generalship displayed by Washington in the winter of 1776 and 1777 have never been surpassed in military history. If this sounds extravagant, let us quote the words of Von Moltke, the eminent Prussian general and the foremost strategist of modern times, as stated by Professor W. M. Sloane: "No finer movement was ever executed than the retreat across the Jerseys, the return across the Delaware a first time, and then a second, so as to draw out the enemy in a long, thin line, to skirmish at the Assanpink,

create a feeling of assurance, throw the British general off his guard, turn his flank with consummate skill, and, finally, with such unequal force, to complete his discomfiture at Princeton and throw him back upon his base. Washington's military career was marked throughout by preëminent qualities as a soldier, but the climax of his power was displayed when, with such scanty resources as had been put at his disposal throughout that first campaign, he closed it by leaving a numerous and well-equipped enemy boxed up in New York, and much concerned, at that, for the safety of its precious stores. Great as were Washington's later achievements, and remarkable indeed as was his conduct of the whole war, he never surpassed his early feats of strategy. Of these the affair at Princeton was the climax."

When Washington, after the battle of Princeton, in January, 1777, went to Morristown, he made his headquarters at the Arnold tavern, which has since been completely changed in appearance, and now serves as a hospital. Returning in the winter of 1779-80, the commander in chief occupied the house built by Colonel Jacob Ford in 1772. This structure, which has been admirably preserved by the patriotic Washington Headquarters Association, contains hundreds of interesting souvenirs of Washington. Among the most priceless is his original commission as commander of the American army. It is dated June 19, 1775, and is signed by John Hancock, then president of the Continental Congress. This document was accidentally found by a carpenter, while repairing the capitol at Richmond, Virginia. Other precious heritages are many of Washington's familiar personal let-



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT MORRISTOWN, NEW JERSEY

ters to his military friends; a marble bust by the French sculptor Houdon, believed to be absolutely accurate; glass-ware used at Mount Vernon; uniforms, articles of furniture, dress, and various bric-a-brac, besides the fine old clock in the dining room whose ticking fell upon Washington's ears more than a century ago. Nowhere is there a finer collection than is gathered in this historic building at Morristown.

Mrs. Washington was the companion at times of her husband at Morristown. She presided at the table with natural grace and dignity, and proved here, as at Valley Forge and elsewhere, her sympathy with him and the cause to which he had consecrated his life. Visitors were often entertained, and though the fare was meager, Virginian hospitality was never lacking. Thither went Baron Steuben, who after fighting through the war of the Austrian Succession and through the Seven Years' War, abandoned the position of aide to Frederick the Great in 1778, to help the Americans in their struggle for liberty. Congress appointed him inspector-general, and his services in drilling the troops were invaluable.

CHAPTER VIII

A HARRIED STATE

NOWHERE, except perhaps in the extreme South, did the patriots suffer to such an extent as in New Jersey. Not only were both armies encamped for a long time on its soil, — and the presence even of a friendly force is always a hardship to the people, — but the State was harried by Tories. When driven out, gangs of them gathered on Staten Island, made swift raids into the State, and not only committed shocking atrocities, but kidnaped prominent citizens. It cannot be wondered at that the patriots in their rage retaliated in some instances to the full. A civil war is the most merciless of all wars, and the condition of New Jersey was at times harrowing beyond imagination. To add to the horrors, a number of desperate men made their homes in the immense wooded tracts of Monmouth. They were known as “pine robbers,” and robbed and killed Tories and patriots impartially, whenever there was a chance of gaining aught thereby.

The good effect of Washington's victories was more marked in New Jersey than anywhere else. This was due, not only to the reawakened faith in the triumph of freedom, but to the fact that those who had taken British protection found to their cost that it was no protection at all. The open enemies of the invaders could not have suffered more outrages at their hands than did those who professed to be the friends of the British.

The militia of the State were roused, and until the close of the war they proved themselves among the best of soldiers. The patriotism of the State was keyed up as never before. Washington issued a stern proclamation against the plundering of people under the pretense that they were Tories. At the same time, he promised to shield all who would surrender their protection papers and swear allegiance to the United States. By this means, hundreds were brought back to the side of the patriots.

Washington was convinced that Howe would either move up the Hudson to meet Burgoyne's army coming down from Canada, or cross to New Jersey to capture Philadelphia. The American commander drilled his troops and held himself ready to check either movement. On the 28th of May he left the camp at Morristown and marched to Bound Brook, ten miles from New Brunswick. General Sullivan's force at Princeton was steadily increased by the New Jersey militia and recruits from the Southern States. Howe, hoping to draw the Continental army into the open field, where he could overwhelm it, advanced from New Brunswick in two columns. The first, under Cornwallis, reached Somerset Court House the next morning and the second kept on to Middlebrook. Washington posted his army in line of battle on the heights. The New Jersey militia, in large numbers, reënforced General Sullivan, who took position behind the Sourland Hills, in the direction of Flemington.

Finding that Washington could not be lured from his position, Howe marched back to New Brunswick. Three days later he moved to Perth Amboy and sent his baggage trains across to Staten Island on a portable bridge. He

had decided to waste no more time, but to advance against Philadelphia without further delay. Washington read his purpose and sent Generals Greene, Sullivan, and Maxwell to assail him on the flank and rear. The chief moved his army to Quibbletown (New Market), in the direction of Perth Amboy, and Lord Stirling marched to Metuchen Meeting House.

These movements drew Howe into another attempt to bring on a general engagement, but the American commander quickly regained his fortifications at Middlebrook. Thereupon, Howe passed through Rahway to Perth Amboy, and on the last day of June crossed with his army to Staten Island. Washington was now convinced that the British commander had given up his intention of marching overland to Philadelphia and that the attack would be made by sea. The chief advanced toward the Delaware, where he posted his forces below the city, and strongly reënforced the forts at Red Bank on the east side and at Mud Island on the western shore.

Howe landed at Elkton, Maryland, and Washington advanced to the Brandywine to give him battle at Chadd's Ford. On September 11, 1777, General Maxwell with the New Jersey troops was driven across Brandywine Creek and Howe's army flung itself against Washington's flank. The latter was defeated, but the pursuit of the enemy was checked by the division of General Wayne. The American guards at the ford hastened off to join the main army, which retreated to Chester. In this unfortunate affair the patriots lost nine hundred, killed and wounded, and the enemy about half as many.

Washington entered Philadelphia the next day, crossed

the Schuylkill, and stationed himself on the eastern bank, with strong guards at the different fords, where the enemy seemed likely to try to pass. The dashing General Wayne hid himself and fifteen hundred men in the woods, meaning to assail the British in the rear. Their presence was betrayed to the enemy, who attacked them so furiously that three hundred men were killed. This sad affair is known as the Paoli Massacre.



ATTACK AT CHEW HOUSE, GERMANTOWN, PENNSYLVANIA

Having gained command of the Schuylkill, Howe crossed with his whole army and occupied Philadelphia. He then set out to reduce the forts below the city, so as to allow the English fleet to come up the river. It proved a hard task, but he succeeded. While he was thus engaged, Washington tried to surprise the enemy at Germantown. He did so, but a stubborn resistance was met at the "Chew House." Being made of stone, it could not be burned, and

the cannon shot did no damage. A dense fog made it impossible at times to tell friend from foe, and several Continental companies fired into one another. The confusion became so hopeless that Washington was forced to retreat to save his men. He did so without losing a gun, but his loss was a thousand, to six hundred of the enemy. The humiliating fact was afterward learned that had the fight lasted ten minutes longer, Howe would have retreated.

Congress had fled to York, and Washington went to Valley Forge, where the patriots starved and froze, with the enemy a few miles away in Philadelphia, living upon the fat of the land. But while everything seemed to go wrong with the army of the commander in chief, a far-reaching victory crowned our arms in the North. With the finest equipped foreign force that ever trod American soil, General Burgoyne marched down from Canada, intending to force his army, like a great wedge, between New England and the other States. Could the two sections be thus split apart, and mutual support excluded, both would be so weakened that their conquest would be sure.

As Burgoyne moved southward, he was invested on every hand by the patriots. His supplies were shut off, he was continually assailed, and when it became a choice between starvation and yielding, he surrendered nearly six thousand men with an enormous amount of military supplies, on October 17, 1777. The victory was the greatest triumph, thus far, of the war. More important than that, it gave France the excuse for which she was waiting, to help the Americans openly and soon after to form a treaty of alliance with them. The assistance of France, however, amounted to very little until near the close of the war.

In November, 1777, Congress adopted the "Articles of Confederation," which bound the States together in the best union that could be formed in the circumstances. The Articles could not be binding until first accepted by the several States. Much discussion followed, and Maryland — the last — did not assent until 1781. The debate was under way in the New Jersey legislature, when Governor Livingston, in the latter part of May, 1778, told the body that two treaties, one commercial and the other defensive, had been signed with France.

Among the New Jersey amendments proposed to the Articles were those prohibiting a standing army in time of peace, giving Congress the sole power of regulating trade with other countries, and authorizing that body to sell vacant and unpatented lands for the purpose of paying the expenses of the war and for other general purposes. New Jersey accepted the Articles in November, 1778.

CHAPTER IX

THE BATTLE OF MONMOUTH COURT HOUSE

THE sluggish Sir William Howe, in command at Philadelphia, was displaced by Sir Henry Clinton, who feared that the expected French fleet would sail up the Delaware and shut off his escape by water, while Washington attacked him by land. He decided, therefore, to withdraw from the city, march across New Jersey, which as usual lay in the path, to Sandy Hook, and thence sail for New York. He left Philadelphia, June 17, 1778, with his command of ten thousand well-appointed troops.

Washington was quick to read his opponent's plan. He sent Maxwell with the New Jersey brigade, a union having been formed with the militia under Dickinson, to break down the bridges and to fell trees in front of the enemy. This work was done so well that Clinton, clogged by his huge baggage train, took six days to reach Imlaystown, fourteen miles southeast of Trenton.

Washington, with the main army, crossed the Delaware at Coryell's Ferry, where Lambertville now stands, and sent Colonel Morgan and his picked corps of six hundred men to reënforce Maxwell, while the commander in chief marched toward Princeton. Not knowing the route Clinton intended to take, he halted at Hopewell, partly to rest his men, for the weather was very hot and rainy.

When he reached Kingston, his spies brought news

that made clear the intended course of Clinton. A thousand troops were sent to help those that were harassing the rear of the enemy. They were under the command of Lafayette, who was ordered to press Clinton's left. That night Washington advanced to Cranbury, and on the evening of the 26th the front was within five miles of the enemy. General Lee, who had been exchanged some time before, was hurried forward the next day with two brigades and took command of the whole division, now grown to five thousand men. This strong force was thus pushed forward because it was known that Clinton had placed his best troops at the rear. That night Washington encamped within three miles of Englishtown, where Lee had paused with his advance.

Clinton had taken a good position on the high ground near Monmouth Court House. His right rested on the edge of a small wood, and a dense forest sheltered his left, while his whole front was shielded by another wood. He was anxious to gain the heights of Middletown, only twelve miles distant, where he would be safe against any assault.

The British commander felt no special fear of the Americans, but was concerned for the safety of his immense baggage train. It was the season when the days are longest, and between three and four o'clock on the morning of June 28 he started the train toward the seacoast. To avoid crowding it, Clinton waited two hours before following. This division was under the immediate command of Lord Cornwallis, who, as has been said, was the best British general in America.

Washington was resolute to strike Clinton. He had sent a note to Lee some hours before, ordering him to

watch the enemy closely and not to allow him to slip away. Lee was alert. When, in the early dawn, the chief learned that his foes were moving, he ordered Lee to push on and attack them "unless there should be powerful reasons to the contrary." Lee was also notified that Washington was advancing to support him.

The most conflicting messages came rapidly to Lee, who was sorely perplexed. In the midst of his distraction Lafayette arrived with about four thousand men, besides Morgan's troops and the New Jersey militia. Lee, Wayne, and several officers rode out to reconnoiter. They believed the force in front of them was the covering party of the enemy and could be cut off from the main army. Wayne started forward with seven hundred men and some pieces of artillery to hold the guard by a moderate attack, while Lee gained the rear and captured it.

It soon became certain that the enemy in front of Lee was much stronger than had been supposed, — so strong indeed that they advanced against the Americans. This brought about the situation which has been described so many times. The shifting of one body of our troops was believed to be a retreat by the commander of another body, who also fell back. The panic quickly spread to all the divisions, and in a short time Lee's whole command was on the run, with the British in close pursuit. This was kept up all the way to the village, when it ceased from a cause which has not yet been explained.

Sunday, June 28, was one of the hottest days ever known in the history of New Jersey. The temperature touched one hundred degrees and at times passed above that. The oppressive heat was disastrous to soldiers fatigued by



BRITISH SOLDIER

previous efforts. Men died from sunstroke in the middle of the preceding and the following night. Amid the choking dust and smiting rays, the suffering was intense, and over a hundred deaths resulted from the awful heat.

The Americans fought with the least possible covering for their bodies; but as the British always wore their uniforms in battle, not a British officer or private threw off his coat, even when, gasping for breath, he sank down on the blistering earth, to moan out his life.

The English regulars wore scarlet coats, faced with different colors, according to regiment, white crossed belts for cartridge boxes and bayonets, hair-covered knapsacks, white waistcoats and breeches, black gaiters, and tall beaver hats. The Grenadier Guards wore beaver-skin caps all through that unendurable temperature.

Our own generals wore blue and buff, the stars for the epaulettes not being adopted until a year later, and large black cocked hats, with black cockades, similar to the British pattern.



AMERICAN SOLDIER

The chief supposed the van of Lee's command would strike the rear of the British, and he ordered Greene to go to the right with the right wing to prevent the enemy from turning that flank, the chief intending to lead the left wing to the support of Lee. At this critical moment Washington was told that the whole army was retreating. He could not believe the astounding news, and spurred his horse to a gallop, checking it at the ravine just beyond Tennent Church, at sight of his troops coming pellmell toward him. Immediately afterwards, he came face to face with Lee, who was so occupied that he did not see his chief until the noses of their horses almost touched.

Washington had drawn his sword, and was in such a rage that those who saw the two thought he meant to cut down Lee. The latter abruptly saluted, but before he could speak, the chief furiously demanded the meaning of the retreat. Lee had a passionate temper, but restrained himself, and said with biting intensity: "It is the natural result of your Excellency's judgment, and the disobedience of my orders by your officers, but I will lead the troops back and fight to the death."

"Go to the rear! This is cowardice or worse!"

Lee quivered with passion, but again he checked himself and sullenly obeyed his chief. Washington spurred his horse among the tumultuous troops, and by his sheer personality was rapidly rounding them into form, when Colonel Hamilton, in a state of consternation, dashed up and called out that the British army was within fifteen minutes of the spot.

Instantly Washington became as calm as a summer's day. He waited for the rear of the troops to reach him.

His eye had been quick to note that the spot was favorable for a stand. Turning his head, he saw Lee sitting in his saddle, his face pale, but awaiting the commands of his chief. Washington was always magnanimous, and the distressed countenance touched him. He motioned Lee to approach. The latter saluted and obeyed. In an even voice, in which there was a tone of consideration, the chief



WASHINGTON REPRIMANDING LEE AT MONMOUTH

asked: "Will you command on this ground? If not, I will remain; if you will command, I will return to the main body, and form on the next height."

"It is my highest pleasure to obey your orders," replied Lee; "I shall not be the first man to leave the field."

With matchless skill Washington re-formed the broken ranks of the main army, on the moderate elevation to the west of the ravine. Lord Stirling took command of the left wing and Greene gained a good position on the right.

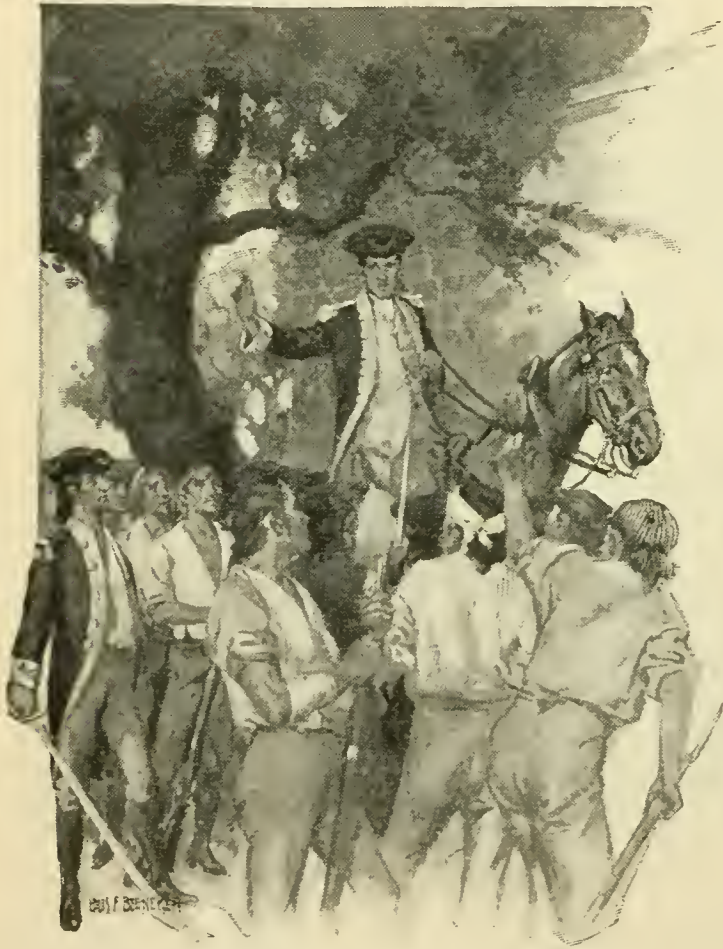
Lee did his duty well. He opened a sharp cannonade in reply to that of the enemy, whose light horse made a vicious charge upon his right. Despite a desperate resistance, the Americans were forced back. They withdrew slowly across an open field, in front of the ravine, to a growth of locust trees known as the "Hedgerow."¹

On this spot the most terrific fighting of the day took place. Several cannon on an eminence to the rear struck down many of the enemy, but the cavalry and a powerful force of infantry pressed on, and swept back the patriots. Lee led his men across the ravine, and he himself was the last to leave. Quickly re-forming them, he galloped up to Washington and asked for his orders. The soldiers were gasping with exhaustion and the appalling heat. In mercy to them, the chief directed Lee to place his troops behind Englishtown, while he engaged the enemy with fresh men of the second division and the main division.

The real battle followed. In the formation of the new line Greene had the right and Lord Stirling the left. Wayne, somewhat in advance, held an elevation in an orchard, while several pieces of artillery were posted on Combs's Hill, a quarter of a mile away. These guns commanded the hill beyond the Hedgerow, held by the British, who were greatly harassed by the fire. Their charges on the front being repulsed, the enemy attempted to turn the American left, but were checked there also. Then they hurled themselves against the right, only to be flung back as before, while the battery under Knox, on the elevation occupied by Greene, attacked them with great vigor.

¹ A group of locusts still stands upon this spot. Among them are possibly a few around which the flame of battle raged more than a hundred years ago.

Wayne, from his place in the orchard, kept hammering the British center. The Royal Grenadiers, under Lieutenant Colonel Monckton, repeatedly bucked their way through the Hedgerow, only to be driven back by the Americans, who fought with unsurpassable heroism. The struggle was hand to hand, in the very acme of desperation,



WAYNE ADDRESSING HIS TROOPS

and many sank to the ground and died from the intolerable heat.

Then came a brief lull, during which the troops on both sides gathered for the final struggle. Wayne held the key of the American position, and Monckton saw that success was impossible until he was driven from it. He made an impassioned appeal to his men, exhorting them to do their duty. They

answered with cheers, and eagerly awaited his orders. Monckton had a clear voice and he was not only in plain sight, but every word he spoke was heard by the Americans.

Knowing that the final struggle was at hand, Wayne partially sheltered his men behind a large barn that stood near and addressed them: "If you are beaten back, the

day is lost. Hold your fire till I give the command, which will not be till the enemy is very close. Take special aim at the officers. If you can bring down Monckton, it will be worth a regiment."

This cruel command was not forgotten. The enemy formed in solid column and advanced in such splendid order that a single cannon ball from Combs's Hill knocked the muskets from the hands of a whole platoon. With admirable precision the British moved forward until within a few rods of the Americans, when Colonel Monckton waved his sword above his head and his shout rang out — "*Charge!*" Like an echo of his voice rose the other single word — "*Fire!*"

Death mowed down a score, and among the first mortally smitten was Monckton, who was caught in the arms of an aid, as he reeled from his saddle. The enemy were falling back, when the sight of their beloved commander lying helpless on the ground caused them to turn and make a frenzied effort to recover the body. The two forces crashed together, and the climax of the day's fighting took place. The Americans won, and the lifeless trophy was carried into their lines, the maddened pursuers being flung back in their last despairing effort to secure the body.

The repulse of the Grenadiers caused the British army to give way. It retreated to the elevation beyond "Carr's House," which had been occupied by Lee that morning. The enemy were busy for hours in burying their dead, looking after the wounded, and preparing to renew the battle on the morrow. Washington meant to attack them at once, but the ground was so broken that twilight came before he was ready and he decided to wait till daybreak.

The American troops were in motion at an early hour, as eager as their commander to renew the battle which promised the fullest success to them. Clinton, however, had had all he wished of fighting, and did not await the coming of day before renewing his retreat. His aim was to reach Sandy Hook, where he hoped to find Admiral Howe's fleet. Fortunately for the commander and his troops, they were not disappointed. They were taken aboard the ships and in due time landed in New York.

The battle of Monmouth Court House was a moral victory for the patriots, though the object sought was not attained. Finding that the enemy had eluded him, Washington marched to the Hudson, which he crossed at King's Ferry, and once more assumed guard by that stream. His purpose was to prevent the British from shutting off communication between New England and the other States. This duty was of such supreme importance that Washington never lost sight of it from the beginning to the close of the war.

CHAPTER X

STRIKING INCIDENTS CONNECTED WITH THE BATTLE OF MONMOUTH COURT HOUSE

No battle of the Revolution was marked by more interesting incidents than that which has been described in the preceding chapter. It may be added that regarding no event are there more mistaken impressions.

Monmouth Court House, during the War for Independence, and for some years afterward, meant not only the dozen straggling buildings clustered around the old courthouse built in 1715, and strung along the road to Allentown, Middletown, and to Tennent Church, but the whole township. The name of the flourishing county town was later changed to Freehold.

The story of Mollie Pitcher is a part of the battle. It is shown on a fine monument, and has been depicted and told times without number. "Mollie Pitcher" was the nickname given to that remarkable woman, because of her task in carrying water to her husband and other soldiers during the battle. The facts are as follows:—

Her name was Mary, and she was the daughter of John George Ludwig. She married John Hays, a Pennsylvania artilleryman, and, after his death, became the wife of Sergeant George McCaully. She was a woman of powerful, masculine frame. On that day of insufferable heat, she had her hands full in trying to quench the thirst of her husband.

He was helping to serve a gun when he was shot down, the enemy taking special pains to pick off the gunners of the battery that was doing great execution.

Seeing her husband fall, Mollie caught up the sponge-staff, which had dropped from his hands, and continued his work throughout the remainder of the battle. It is usually said that an officer ordered the gun out of action,

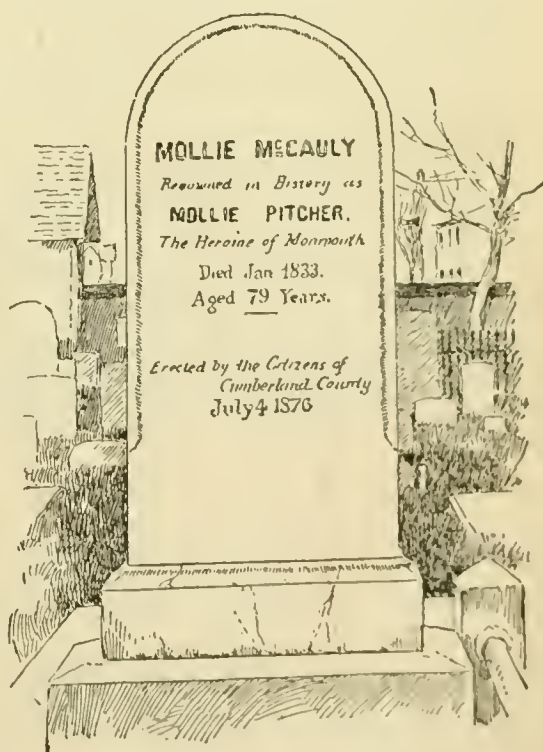


"MOLLIE PITCHER" AT MONMOUTH

because of the death of McCaully, and that he yielded to the request of the woman that the piece should be kept in service. But every gun was needed by the Americans at Monmouth, and nothing can be more absurd than to suppose that the death of one of the seven men in charge of the cannon should make it necessary for the six to abandon their important work. The gun would have been kept going without the aid of Mollie, though that fact cannot dim the glory of her deed.

Another universal, though slight, error makes Mollie carry the water from a spring. There was no spring anywhere near her. She brought the water from Wenrock Brook, which flowed then as it flows to-day at the base of Combs's Hill. Close to the railway, a mile west of Freehold, a post has been set up with the painted words: "Moll Pitcher's Well." There is no ground whatever for this sign. The well or spring referred to did not appear until a half century after the battle, during which no artillery was in its neighborhood.

Another statement often made regarding Mollie is that Washington gave her a commission as a lieutenant. There is no official record of any such occurrence. General Greene presented her to the chief, who complimented her for her bravery and may have made her an "honorary" officer. Mollie was fond of wearing a military coat, and no doubt she was often called "Captain" by her friends, who were naturally proud of her. She was granted a pension by the State of Pennsylvania and lived in comfort to old age. In the cemetery at Carlisle, a neat stone monument bears this inscription: "Mollie McCauly, Renowned in History as Mollie Pitcher, the Heroine of Monmouth. Died Jan., 1833, aged 79 years. Erected by the Citizens of Cumberland Co., July 4, 1876."



MONUMENT TO "MOLLIE PITCHER"

It is hard to see any special cause for blaming Lee at Monmouth. He fought bravely and skillfully, amid conflicting reports and the greatest confusion. But he had a peppery temper and, as we know, was very jealous of Washington. It was his insulting letters to Washington and to Congress which caused his dismissal from the service. Lee never lost his admiration for British generalship and bravery, and later developments proved that he was willing to sell his services to Clinton, who did not think them worth buying; but Lee had none of the malignity which marked the treason of Arnold.

Two miles out from Monmouth Court House stood the famous Tennent Church, as it stands to-day, strong, attractive, and in the best of repair, though it was built a quarter of a century before the battle. The numerous graves which surround the building show how greatly the dead outnumber the living of the congregation. The body of Colonel Monckton is buried near the church.

The attendants came from miles around on each Sabbath to attend the service at the Tennent Church. On June 28, 1778, as may well be supposed, no sermon was preached. Pastor and congregation gathered round the building, talking with bated breath of the battle that seemed to be raging on every hand. They saw the charging enemy in their brilliant uniforms, the ragged and mostly barefooted Continentals, — some of whom hurried past the church several times. The sulphurous clouds mixed with the hot dust in the highway and shut hundreds of the combatants from view, but the continuous rattle of the musketry, the boom of cannon, and the shouts of men, with glimpses of soldiers fighting hand to hand, told all



TENNENT CHURCH

that one of the greatest battles of the Revolution was going on around them.

Twenty feet from the front of the church was a large oak, under which stood a group of men and women, talking in awed voices of the fearful scene. A young man, named Tunis Coward, folded his arms and partly leaned against the trunk of the oak and partly sat upon a sandstone monument about three feet high. In this posture, he and the others were gazing toward the Court House, where the firing just then was the hottest, when a pecul-

iar whizzing sound was heard. In the same moment the upper half of the headstone flew into fragments, many of which rattled against the front of the meeting house and stung the faces of several persons. Coward was hurled



FREEHOLD MONUMENT

toward the church door, with one leg loosely flapping, and rolled over in a limp heap. A cannon ball, traveling up from the Court House, had just cleared the roof of the horse sheds, struck Coward, and then skipped and plowed up the field beyond. The poor fellow was carried through the open door and laid in one of the pews just as he breathed his last. The pew is the first one on the right as you pass through the left front door.

The body of Coward was the only one taken into Tennent Church during or after the battle.

Colonel David Ray of the artillery was riding somewhat in advance of a militia regiment, on the morning of the battle, when he saw a British dragoon, mounted on a superb horse, leave the ranks and come toward him. Ray

was astride a sorry nag, and he determined to capture the fine steed of his enemy. He was one of the best shots in the army, and when about fifty yards from the other, he deliberately aimed his pistol and fired at the dragoon. He missed, and, drawing his other weapon, fired with the same care, but missed again. The trooper was now almost upon him, charging at full speed with drawn sword.

Ray decided that it was the best time in the world to retreat, and whirling about, he spurred his horse to a dead run, heading for a barn near at hand, around which he dashed, dodging as best he could the furious blows of the dragoon, who kept hard after him. Seeing a door open, the fugitive drove his horse into that and out of another door. His pursuer did the same, determined that the American should not escape him; and Ray made for his regiment, which was hurrying to his help. The dragoon was at his heels and struck repeatedly at him, until he was within a few rods of the Americans. More than a score of shots were fired at the daring fellow, but he was not touched. Finally he wheeled about, rode back at an easy pace, and was seen to take his place in line.

CHAPTER XI

CLOSING EVENTS OF THE REVOLUTION

IN September, 1778, occurred what is known as "The Tappan Massacre." A force of British soldiers, five thousand strong, went up the Hudson, partly to collect forage and partly to draw off attention from an expedition against Little Egg Harbor. Washington directed Colonel George Baylor, with a detachment of Virginia troopers, consisting of twelve officers and one hundred and four men, to watch the enemy. Colonel Baylor and his men were surprised by the British while asleep, late at night, near Tappan, Bergen county. In their attack the enemy displayed the utmost brutality. Twenty-eight of the Americans were killed or wounded, and thirty-nine were captured.

The other British expedition landed at Little Egg Harbor, on the night of October 5, 1778, and on the morning following burned thirty prize vessels and the village of Chestnut Neck, and devastated the neighborhood. Pulaski's legion, which Washington had directed to meet the British attack, did not arrive until three days after the British. A picket guard of the legion, while in camp near Tuckerton, was betrayed by a deserter, and its commander and forty men were slain. Pulaski made a fierce pursuit, but could not overtake the fleeing enemy.

The Iroquois, or Six Nations, had their homes in western New York. They were the most powerful league of

Indians that ever existed on this continent. Most of them joined the Tories and committed such atrocities in the Wyoming and Mohawk valleys that all the frontier settlements were in danger of being destroyed. Washington saw that the only way to save them was to retaliate without mercy. He organized an expedition of five thousand Continentals, and placed them under command of General Sullivan, with orders to do his work thoroughly.

The expedition was composed of four brigades, of which New Jersey furnished the First. It included also the garrison of Fort Sullivan, at Tioga Point, and was commanded by General William Maxwell.¹ The respective colonels were Matthias Ogden, Israel Shreve, and Oliver Spencer. In addition, our State sent sixty-eight men from Colonel Baldwin's regiment and seventy-five dragoons from Colonel Sheldon's regiment. The contribution of New Jersey was about fifteen hundred men, or nearly one third of the entire body.

The main army, in which was the First Brigade, marched from Elizabethtown, in May, and advanced by way of Easton. Memorials of this march, in bronze, inscribed stone, or masonry, have been erected by New

¹ William Maxwell is believed to have been born in Ireland and brought to this country when very young. He entered the colonial service in 1758 and served through the French and Indian War. At the opening of the Revolution he became colonel of the Second New Jersey Battalion and accompanied the disastrous expedition to Canada in 1776. In October of the same year he was appointed brigadier general and was with General Schuyler at Lake Champlain. He harassed the enemy after the battle of Trenton, and during the winter and spring of 1777 was stationed near the British lines at Elizabethtown. He commanded the New Jersey brigade at Brandywine and Germantown, and shivered and starved with his brother patriots at Valley Forge. He pursued Clinton across New Jersey and did valuable work at Monmouth, keeping up the pursuit and harassment of the enemy to Sandy Hook. Washington said of him: "I believe him to be an honest man, a warm friend of his country, and firmly attached to its interests." He died in 1798.

York, Pennsylvania, and New Hampshire, and it would be appropriate for New Jersey to follow their example. The decisive battle was fought August 29, at Newtown, near Elmira, New York. The great town of the Senecas (the leaders in the fierce raids on the settlements) and more than a score of other villages were laid in ashes, crops were destroyed, and so many warriors were slain that years passed before the Iroquois recovered from this crushing blow.



PAULUS HOOK

One of the most brilliant exploits of the Revolution was the capture of Paulus Hook, by "Light Horse Harry" Lee. Paulus Hook, now in the heart of Jersey City, was at that time a marshy island, about sixty-five acres in extent. It was separated from the main land by salt meadows, over which the tide ebbed and flowed. Through these meadows ran a tidal creek, and an artificial ditch had been dug and a drawbridge constructed. This, with a strong

abatis, a powerful barred gate, three blockhouses, a chain of breastworks, a fort mounting three twelve pounders and one eighteen pounder, a redoubt, and minor works, made the position seemingly unassailable.

The valiant Captain Allen McLane of Delaware shares with Major Lee the credit for the inception and execution of this daring enterprise. Lee was stationed two miles from Paramus Church, and began his march on the forenoon of August 18, 1779. His force numbered between four hundred and five hundred men. Their guide was either ignorant or treacherous, and, in the forests between Guttenberg and Union Hill, led the Americans astray. They were separated and most of the Virginians deserted, so that when Lee emerged from the tangled wood, he had only a hundred and fifty men with him. Undaunted, however, he pushed on and arrived at the fort between two and three in the morning. He entered it in three columns and had possession of it before the garrison was fully awake. Since the ammunition of the patriots had been damaged in crossing the ditch, the blockhouses and forts were captured at the point of the sword and bayonet. The British commander and his guard fled to the magazine, where they were safe.

Day was breaking, the alarm had spread to the British shipping in New York Harbor, and hurried preparations were made to send relief to the besieged garrison. The Americans were in imminent peril. Nothing but instant retreat could save them, and it looked doubtful whether even that would avail. Only two had been killed, and three wounded, while the loss of the enemy was more than a score. Lee had captured a hundred and fifty-nine prison-

ers, and along the line of his retreat was the vigilant foe, separated only by the Hudson. He strove to place the Hackensack between himself and his pursuers, but lack of boats prevented. By a desperate dash, and supported by the troops sent to his aid by Lord Stirling, Lee finally forced his way through to New Bridge, having marched eighty miles in three days. In recognition of this brilliant exploit Congress ordered a gold medal to be presented to Major Lee, — a noteworthy distinction, as only five others were ordered during the war, — and distributed \$15,000 in money among the non-commissioned officers and privates.

Since it was hopeless to attack New York, Washington went into winter quarters at Morristown, on December 1, 1779. His cantonments extended from Danbury, Connecticut, across the Hudson at West Point to Elizabethtown, New Jersey. The war kept moving southward, where the enemy were to attain their greatest successes and to meet final disaster. In the north the struggle was mainly a series of savage skirmishes.

Although relieved of the presence of an invading army, our State suffered greatly from partisan warfare. Tories from Staten Island and New York ravaged the eastern counties, and showed no mercy to men, women, and children; while the "pine robbers," as before, added to the horrors by their outrages against both parties. The militia hunted down these marauders, whenever possible.

The winter of 1779–80 was the severest of the eighteenth century. All military operations were brought to a standstill, and the suffering was intense. Washington's army at Morristown was so near starvation that he notified

the counties that unless flour and meat were furnished without delay, they would be taken by force. The authorities acted promptly, and the chief was not driven to this last resort.

Washington did his utmost to get his troops in readiness to coöperate with the French fleet and army that were expected with the coming summer. But an ominous spirit appeared in the camp at Morristown. With scant food and miserable clothing, and part payment only in a currency that had become almost worthless, the men grew mutinous. News of the state of affairs reached New York and led the enemy to seize what looked like a golden opportunity. A force of five thousand men under General Knyphausen was landed at Elizabethtown Point, June 6, 1780, and marched inland. To the astonishment of the invaders, however, their reception was like that of the British who marched out of Boston to Lexington five years before.

The Hessian commander was brought to a halt at Connecticut Farms (now Union), four miles from Elizabethtown. In his anger he burned the village, but fell back before the advance of Washington. Among the buildings destroyed were the church and parsonage. The wife of the pastor, Rev. James Caldwell, was shot while kneeling at prayer with her little child.

In the latter part of June, 1780, Clinton, with six thousand men, marched toward Springfield, for the purpose of attacking the American troops. He was held in check for a time by General Greene, but the Americans were forced to fall back. It was during this fight that some of the militia ran short of wadding. Rev. Mr. Caldwell gathered

an armful of Bibles and hymn books, tore out the leaves, and distributed them among the soldiers, calling out:—

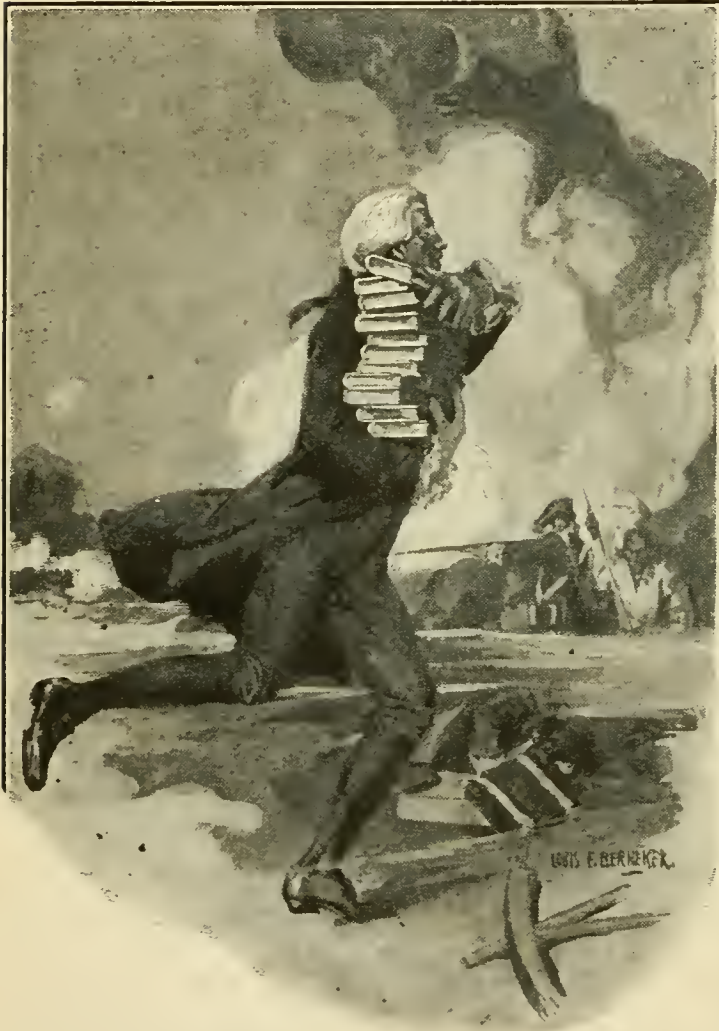
“Give them Watts, boys! Give them Watts!”

About a year and a half later this “soldier parson,” as he was called, was slain by an American sentinel, who was

afterwards hanged for the wanton crime.

Having laid Springfield in ashes, Clinton returned to Elizabethtown Point and crossed to Staten Island.

Dark days now came to the cause of American liberty. The French fleet with six thousand troops on board arrived in July, only to be blockaded at Newport Harbor by a superior naval force. General Gates



REV. CALDWELL'S AMMUNITION

was disastrously defeated in South Carolina, and the blackest crime of the war, the treason of Benedict Arnold, saddened the country. In the latter part of December, 1780, the Pennsylvania line near Morristown revolted, because they had received little or no pay and were suffering from lack of food, clothing, and shelter. Moreover, they con-

tended that, since they had enlisted for three years *or* the war, they should be discharged on the last day of that month, when their term would end. The officers insisted that the enlistment was for three years *and* the war, and the men must stay to the end of hostilities.



MUTINY OF PENNSYLVANIA LINE

On the first day of the year 1781, thirteen hundred mutineers paraded under arms with the avowed purpose of marching to Philadelphia, where Congress was in session, and compelling that body to right their wrongs. In the effort to restrain the rebels an officer was killed and several soldiers were wounded. The daring Wayne, with leveled pistol, ordered the men to return to duty. In an instant a score of bayonets were thrust against his breast.

“We love you, General,” they said, “but if you fire, you are a dead man. We are not going over to the enemy, and if they appear, we will fight them under your orders, but we are determined to have our rights.”

The men chose their own officers, and with six field pieces set out for Philadelphia. Congress was warned of their coming, and sent a committee to meet them. Clinton dispatched agents among the rebels, who offered them liberal pay if they would enter his lines and serve him. The patriots turned the agents over to Wayne and urged him to hang them. Wayne was compelled to disappoint his soldiers, for he had them shot.

The committee from Congress met the mutineers at Trenton, where, after a conference, the trouble was ended. The promise was given to pay all arrears at the earliest possible moment, clothing was furnished on the spot, and those whose terms of enlistment had expired were allowed to leave. More than half the Pennsylvania troops trudged homeward and the others returned to duty.

This flurry was hardly over, when a part of the New Jersey line stationed at Pompton revolted, led to do so by the success of their comrades. A committee from the legislature offered to examine their claims, if they would submit to their officers. A few did so, but the majority remained under arms, demanding to be discharged upon their oaths, as had been done with the Pennsylvania rebels.

Washington saw that his army would go to pieces unless this mutinous spirit was stamped out. He ordered from West Point a detachment, whom he knew he could trust. With these he surrounded the camp and compelled

the mutineers to surrender. Two of their ringleaders were shot, and thus ended all rebellion in the American camp.

The final campaign of the Revolution was in Virginia, where on the 19th of October, 1781, Lord Cornwallis surrendered to the combined armies under Washington and the French, aided by the French fleet. This was the crowning triumph of the struggle. A provisional treaty of peace was signed by the English and American commissioners in Paris, November 30, 1782. Congress proclaimed a stop to hostilities April 11, 1783, and, on September 3, 1783, the independence of the United States was formally acknowledged and ratified.

The termination of the war was celebrated throughout New Jersey, May 19, 1783. In his address to the legislature, Governor Livingston said: "Perhaps at no particular moment during our conflict with Great Britain was there a greater necessity than at the present juncture for unanimity, vigilance, and exertion. The glory we have acquired in the war will resound through the universe. God forbid that we should ever tarnish it by any unworthy conduct in times of peace. We have established our character as a brave people, and exhibited to the world the most incontestable proofs that we are determined to sacrifice both life and fortune in defense of our liberties. Let us now show ourselves worthy of the inestimable blessings of freedom by an inflexible attachment to public faith and national honor. Let us establish our character as a sovereign State on the only durable basis of impartial and universal justice."

PERIOD III—UNDER THE FIRST CONSTITUTION. (1776-1844)

CHAPTER XII

PEACE, PROGRESS, AND WAR

WAR in its nature is an appeal to brute force, and carries in its train the evils of the vicious side of brute nature. Its scars upon the souls of men remain for generations. The Revolution had its justification in England's denial to her American subjects of the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The thirteen States had won their liberty. They had struck dumb the autocrats of the world by the spectacle of an "untrained rabble," sustained by moral idealism, successfully repulsing disciplined veterans of Europe's battlefields. A new light dawned on the horizon. Hope was born in the hearts of the down-trodden of earth. But the full price of liberty was not yet paid, and there was no escaping the final "squaring of accounts."

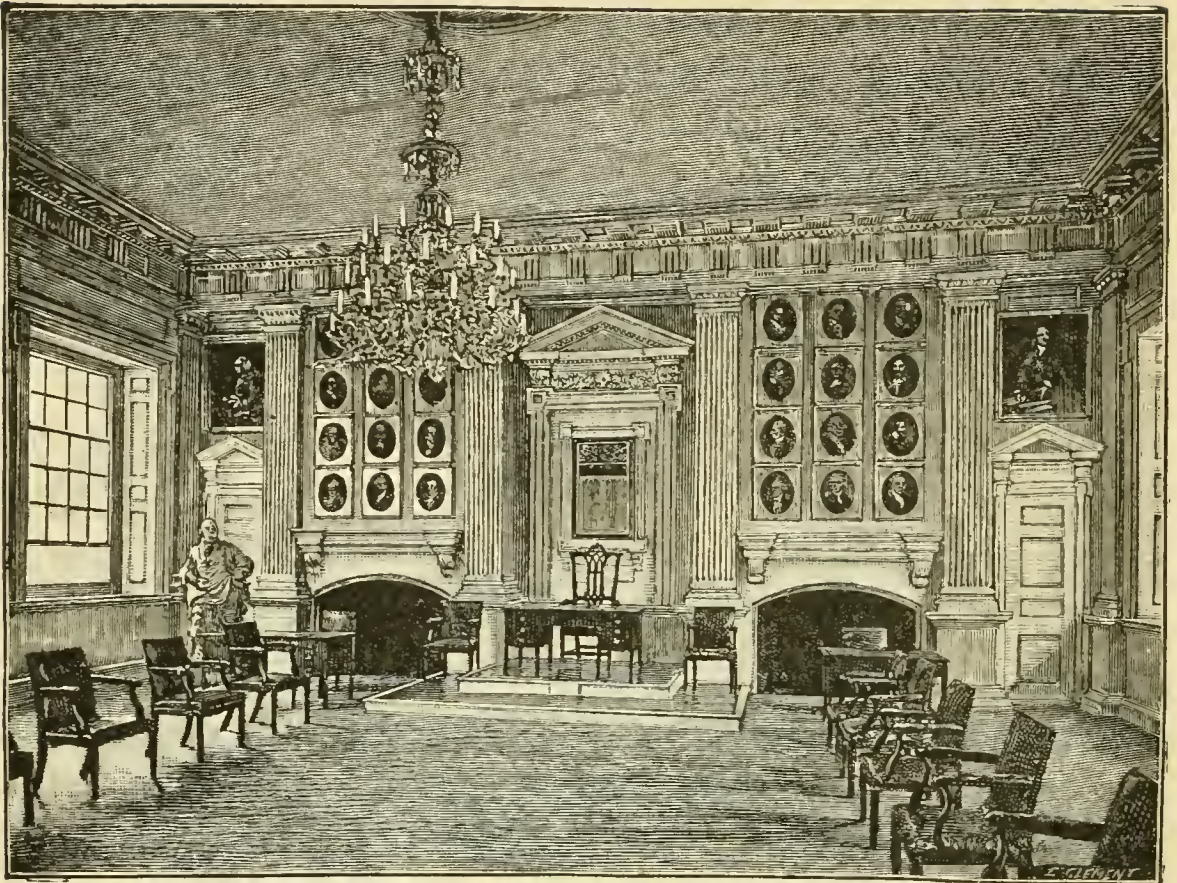
We had gained our independence, and had almost ruined ourselves in doing so. Industry was dead, we were in the depths of poverty, and when the common danger that held the States together vanished, they began drifting apart. Mutual jealousies sprang up; armed revolts against intolerable taxation broke out, and the "Articles

of Confederation," with the coming of peace, lost the slight cohesive power they had during the war. About all Congress could do was to offer advice to the different States, and the States, as a rule, paid very slight heed to the advice.

The colonies, under the "Articles," had to pay the penalty for compromise. Compromise may postpone the day of reckoning, but it never settles a moral question. When the "Articles" were adopted, the leaders in each colony had yielded as little as they could to the common good in the hope of gaining more than enough local advantage to compensate for what they had to sacrifice. In the end the struggle was between two distinct divisions of political sentiment, the one typified by Hamilton, who distrusted the people, and the other by Jefferson, who trusted the people and favored the political equality of all men.

It soon became clear to all thoughtful men that without a government that really governed, the country would be doomed. Anarchy must take the place of law, and the United States would become thirteen wrangling "republics," like those of South America to-day. There would be no security for life and property, and all would be turmoil. But the far-sighted Americans saw the abyss upon whose brink they stood, and knowing what ought to be done, did it with high courage and rare wisdom.

A convention composed of delegates from all the States, except Rhode Island, met in Philadelphia, in May, 1787, to frame a national constitution. In this convention, of which Washington was president, the States were represented by their ablest men. The delegates from New



ROOM IN INDEPENDENCE HALL WHERE THE CONSTITUTION WAS FRAMED

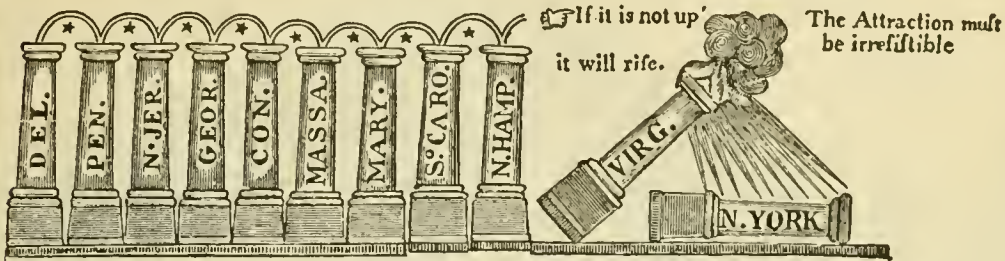
Jersey were: Governor William Livingston, David Brearley, William Paterson, Jonathan Dayton, Abraham Clark, and William C. Houston. The Constitution was gradually molded into form, and has proved to be one of the most wonderful instruments framed by the wisdom of men.

When the Constitution was sent to Congress, that body laid it before the different legislatures, with the suggestion that State conventions of delegates, chosen by the people, should be called to vote for or against accepting it. The New Jersey convention met at Trenton, thoughtfully considered each section, and then adopted it without a single opposing vote on December 18, 1787. New Jersey was the third State to ratify the Constitution, which was soon accepted by all, and thus became the supreme law of the land.

The Ninth PILLAR erected !

“The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution, between the States so ratifying the same.” *Art. vii.*

INCIPIENT MAGNI PROCEDERE MENSES.



ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION, 1788

(From the *Independent Chronicle*)

The discussion over the Constitution brought two great political parties into existence. Those who favored a strong, central government were called Federalists, while those who wished to give all the power possible to the States were first called Republicans, and later Democrats. Since New Jersey had a small area and population, as compared with most of the other States, her natural distrust of them made her Federal in politics. Later conditions caused her to shift to the Democracy, and she swung from one party to the other, in after years, as the political conditions themselves changed.

Washington was a Federalist, and having been elected President of the United States by his grateful countrymen, he set out from Mount Vernon to New York, then the national capital. It was his wish to make the journey without display or ceremony, but every mile became an ovation. At Trenton, where he won his brilliant battle twelve years before, he saw a triumphal arch, supported by thirteen columns, spanning the bridge over the Assanpink. It bore the inscription, “The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters.” As the

smiling Father of his Country, with hat in hand, rode under this arch (still carefully preserved), he was met by a pro-



WASHINGTON'S ARCH AT TRENTON

cession of matrons and their little daughters, each carrying a basket of fragrant flowers. Strewing these in front of his steed, they sang :—

“Welcome, mighty chief! once more,
 Welcome to this grateful shore!
 Now no mercenary foe
 Aims again the fatal blow—
 Aims at thee the fatal blow.

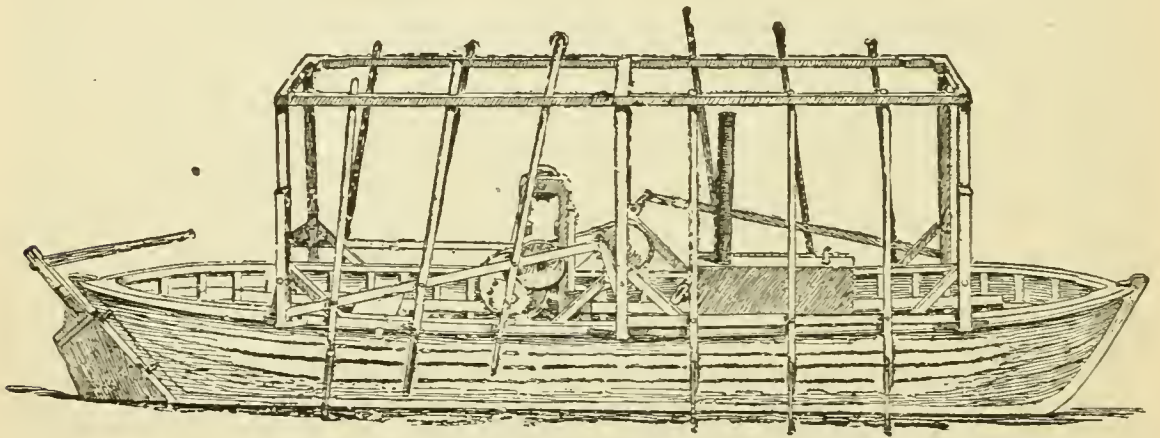
“Virgins fair and matrons grave,
 Those thy conquering arm did save,
 Build for thee triumphal bowers;
 Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers—
 Strew your hero's way with flowers!”

In November, 1790, Trenton was made the capital of New Jersey. By the constitution of 1776 the government was divided into three departments, — the legislative, executive, and judicial. The legislative power rested in a council and assembly, chosen annually. The legislative council — now the senate — was composed of the governor and a member from each county; and the assembly consisted of delegates from each county, the number based on its population. The executive power lay in the governor, elected annually by the council and assembly in joint meeting, as were the secretary of state and treasurer. The judiciary power was vested in the different courts. The judges of the supreme court were elected for seven years and those of the inferior courts for five years, — all by the legislature. The governor was chancellor of the State.

The population of New Jersey in 1790 was 184,139 persons, the State standing ninth in that respect in the union. The people were widely scattered; there were no large cities and few towns of importance. The inhabitants were mostly impoverished, but they were industrious and enterprising, and rapidly recovered from the devastating effects of the war. There were no railways or canals, though some were beginning to think of them, and the following half century was to see amazing developments in the means of travel and transportation.¹

¹ It is worth noting that in 1792 the postage on letters varied from six cents for thirty miles to twenty-five cents for all distances greater than four hundred and fifty miles. If the letter weighed more than a quarter of an ounce, the rates were doubled. Envelopes were not known, the last page of every sheet of foolscap, generally blue in color, being left unruled for the address. The prepayment of postage was optional, and stamps were not used until a half century later. In 1799 the minimum distance was raised to forty miles and the maximum to five hundred.

John Fitch, a native of Connecticut, was an ingenious watchmaker, and was engaged in gunmaking in Trenton at the outbreak of the Revolution. He enlisted and spent the winter with the patriot troops at Valley Forge. In 1780 he was appointed deputy surveyor of Virginia. Five years later he began constructing a boat to be driven by steam power. Of his success there is no room for doubt, for the New Jersey legislature passed an act on March 18, 1786, granting to Fitch exclusively the right to navigate



JOHN FITCH'S STEAMBOAT

the waters of the State by means of boats propelled by steam. He built and operated four different boats, the last of which made what was then a remarkable speed of a mile in seven and a half minutes. It ran at least two thousand miles as a packet boat in 1790. Fitch took out patents in 1791, sixteen years before Fulton's *Clermont* started up the Hudson and succeeded in running only five miles an hour. A committee appointed by the New York legislature to inquire into Fulton's claims found that he had had access to Fitch's drawings, and that his steamboat was substantially the same as Fitch's. Fitch's boats did not fully meet expectations, however, and interest in them gradually died out.

In the year 1802 the last remnant of Indians in New Jersey, numbering less than a hundred, left the State forever. The red man's barbarism rarely fuses with the white man's civilization. As is generally the case with peoples of inferior intellect, the aborigines had absorbed the weaker or vicious strain, and had become indolent and degraded.

They had been living for a long time at Brotherton, a small tract or reservation in Burlington county. One day a Stockbridge warrior came to the settlement from the home of his tribe, bringing an urgent invitation for the New Jersey red men to make their home with the tribe on Oneida Lake, New York. The invitation was accepted, the Indians removing later to Green Bay, Michigan. Being very poor, they petitioned our legislature, in 1832, for the sum of \$3000 with which to buy agricultural implements. The gift was freely made, much to the delight of the Indians. Their chief had studied at Princeton College, which he left to fight for the patriot cause in the Revolution. In acknowledging the act of simple justice, this leader, then eighty years old, wrote: "Not a drop of our blood have you ever spilled in battle; not an acre of our land have you ever taken without our consent."

In February, 1804, the legislature passed an act declaring that all children of slave parents, that might be born after the 4th of July of that year, should be free upon reaching the age of twenty-five, if they were males, or, if females, upon becoming twenty-one years of age.

In the War of 1812 both parties were at fault. Great Britain was exasperating in enforcing her so-called "right of search" upon our vessels, but a little more patience on

our part and a little more diplomacy might have warded off the war. In some respects we are not a patient people, though sometimes we submit to injustice when we ought to rebel.

War with Great Britain was declared June 18, 1812. The sentiment of the different States was much divided as to the wisdom of the step. New England was bitterly opposed to it. The ships in Boston hung their flags at half mast, while the legislatures of Massachusetts and Connecticut protested against the declaration of war. New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore passed resolutions of approval, and a paper in Baltimore, which favored peace, was mobbed. Several persons were killed during the rioting, and "Light Horse Harry" Lee, who commanded the military that suppressed the disorder, received injuries which caused his death four years later.

The Federalists, who opposed the war, won the State elections in New Jersey, in 1812, and passed resolutions expressing their sentiments. Since the war was confined mainly to the frontiers (where we gained little credit) and the ocean (where our glory was great), New Jersey never suffered invasion, but she shared in the distress and had to help pay the cost of the struggle. Two of her sons won illustrious fame: William Bainbridge, a native of Princeton, who commanded the *Constitution*, when she captured the British frigate *Java*, and the heroic James Lawrence, of whom it is said that his dying cry, as he was carried below from the deck of his defeated *Chesapeake*, "Don't give up the ship!" gave the motto to the American navy.

Joseph Bloomfield, as governor, was commander in chief of the military forces of the State. He was appointed brig-

adier general in the United States army and held that rank until the close of the war. As chief of the third military district, which included most of New Jersey, he was relieved several months later by General Armstrong. General Bloomfield marched to Plattsburg with an expedition for the invasion of Canada, and returning in the summer of 1814, was given command of the fourth military district, with headquarters at Philadelphia. During the war there were in the service of the United States from New Jersey, 395 officers, 808 non-commissioned officers, and 4808 privates.¹

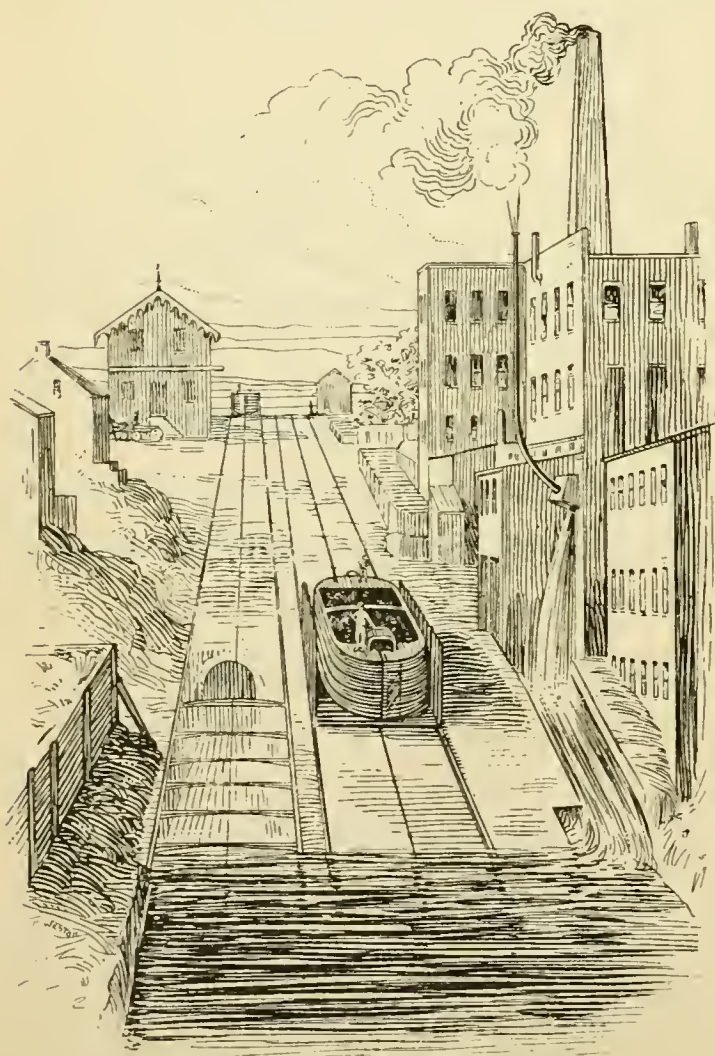
The treaty of peace signed December 24, 1814, left the dispute between Great Britain and the United States precisely where it was before the first gun was fired. Nothing was said about the "right of search," but it was understood that the question was never to come up again, and it never did. The War of 1812 closed the factories of New England, ruined trade and commerce, piled up a debt of \$100,000,000, and cost us 1683 vessels and the lives of 18,000 sailors.

¹ Francis Bazley Lee's "New Jersey as a Colony and as a State."

CHAPTER XIII

PIONEER CANALS AND RAILWAYS

THE first constitution served New Jersey for nearly thirty years after the close of the War of 1812. During that period



MORRIS CANAL—EARLY DAYS

the State was highly prosperous and made great advances in developing its natural resources. The population of a quarter of a million was increased by one half, and numerous and varied industries sprang into life and added to the wealth of the people. It was the period, too, of the pioneer canals and railways.

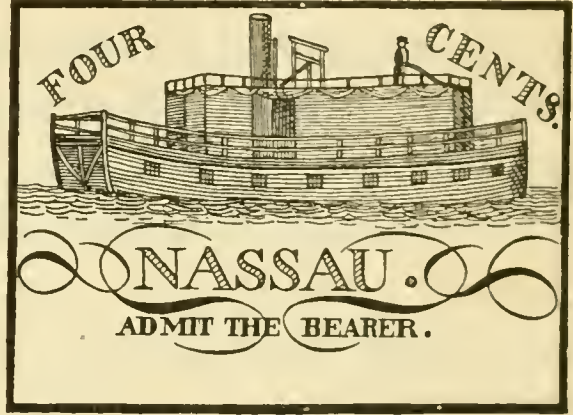
The oldest canal is the Morris, which was chartered in 1824 and finished in 1836. The great engineering difficulties and other causes doomed the enterprise to failure from

the beginning. Its terminal points are Jersey City and the Delaware at Phillipsburg, and its total length is a hundred and three miles. Besides being too small for the tonnage of most boats, and having a depth of only five feet, it has more than a score of inclined planes and locks. The total cost of the construction and improvements to the present time is \$6,000,000.

The Delaware and Raritan Canal, as its name implies, connects the two

rivers named. Starting at New Brunswick, it extends to Bordentown, where it flows into the Delaware. Its length, including feeders, is sixty-six miles. It has fourteen locks and a navigable depth of slightly more than eight feet. Although chartered in 1830, it was not completed until eight years later. The total cost of construction and improvements thus far is nearly \$5,000,000. Its charter forbade the digging of any other canal within five miles of any point on the Delaware or Raritan without the consent of the old corporation.

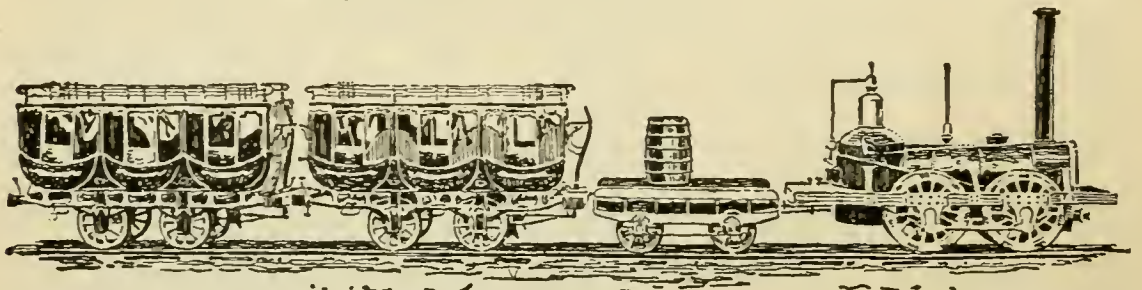
The Camden and Amboy Railroad Company threatened to become the great rival of the canal, but the two united their interests in February, 1831. In lieu of all taxes, the railway company bound itself to pay ten cents for every passenger and fifteen cents for every ton of merchandise carried across the State. These transit duties were to cease if the legislature allowed any other road, carrying passengers between New York and Philadelphia, to have its



AN EARLY FERRY TICKET

terminal within three miles of that of the Camden and Amboy Railroad. This provision was made absolute in 1832, when the legislature, which reserved to the State the right to buy the road at the end of thirty years, forbade the construction of any railway between the two cities named, without the consent of the Camden and Amboy corporation. These transit duties ceased when the general railroad law was passed in 1873.

We are used to hearing it said that the first railway in this country was laid in 1826, at one of the granite quarries in Quincy, Massachusetts. It was only two or three miles long and the cars were drawn by horses. It is difficult to see why this enterprise should be called a railway, in the general acceptance of the word, since no steam was used, and similar tracks had been laid many times in other places. Three English locomotives were unloaded in New York, in May, 1829. One was carried by river and canal to Honesdale, Pennsylvania, put together three months later, and ran on the rails between Honesdale and Prompton. This was the first locomotive that turned a wheel on a railway track in America.



AN EARLY RAILROAD

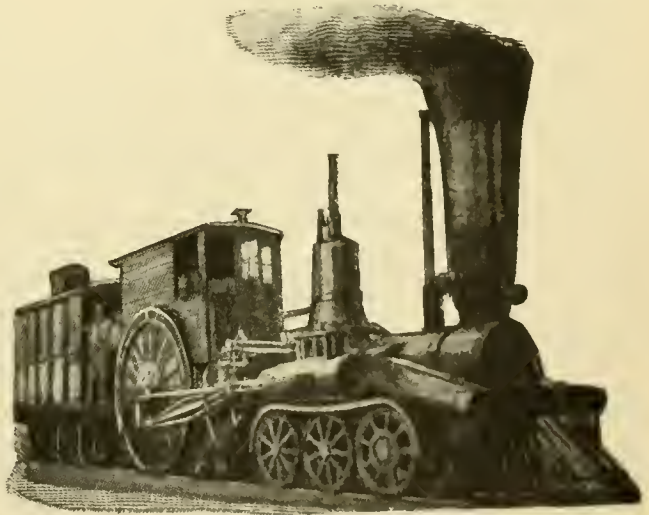
The Baltimore and Ohio was the pioneer passenger railway in this country. The little locomotive *Tom Thumb*, built by Peter Cooper in 1829, pulled a car load of people at the rate of eighteen miles an hour. This was the first

trip of the first American locomotive. The South Carolina Railroad was the first line built with the intention of using steam as a motive force. It began running regular trains in 1830, between Charleston and Hamburg, a distance of a hundred and thirty miles.

The next English locomotive shipped to this country was the *John Bull*, which was landed at Bordentown and given a public trial in November, 1831. It was successful, and, beginning in September, 1833, did good service for thirty years.¹

The railway line between Camden and Perth Amboy was completed at the beginning of 1834, and a single track, sixty-one miles in length, for the first time connected Philadelphia and New York, the water portion being the ferry at Philadelphia and a few miles between Perth Amboy and New York.

The disposition of the Camden and Amboy Company to experiment with locomotives caused the production of a freak engine



FREAK ENGINE

¹ The evolution of the locomotive from the *John Bull* type to the splendid exhibition of modern mechanism is interesting. The pilot of the old type projected so far in front that it ran on wheels of its own; the levers on the side of the engineer bobbed back and forth, keeping time with the swinging of the piston rods under the boiler; the engineer could reverse only on his side, and had to leap across, or leave it to his fireman to reverse the other half; a big hogshead served as a water tank, and a pile of wood (coal was not used until years afterward) answered for fuel. The *John Bull* made the trip from Philadelphia to Chicago and back during the Columbian Exposition, under its own steam, and is preserved with care as a memento of early railroading days.

which began running in the spring of 1849 and remained in use for nearly ten years. It was constructed by Richard Norris and Sons, Philadelphia, and named "John Stevens." Its most noticeable feature was the driving wheels, which were eight feet in diameter. The forward end was carried by a six-wheeled truck. The spaces between the spokes of the driving wheels were filled with wood, an arrangement in use on many other locomotives. The single pair of drivers placed behind the fire-box raised the cab very high. The smokestack was of a clumsy pattern, and the whole structure, which burned wood, as did all engines in those days, was of unsightly appearance.

These freaks, of which a number were made somewhat modified in form, were failures. So little weight rested upon the drivers that they slipped. It took a long time for them to gain full headway, and they could not handle heavy trains. Moreover, they had a strong tendency to jump the tracks upon the least provocation. Sometimes they would leave the rails without any apparent cause. In favoring circumstances they could run quite fast. One day one of these engines engaged in a race with a running horse near Bordentown and easily outdistanced the horse. These odd locomotives have long since been displaced by engines of modern construction.

The success of the Camden and Amboy Company brought numerous rivals into the field, but the conflicting interests were merged, and in 1840 a track was completed between Bordentown and Jersey City, which was the first railway line to cross the State. In 1871 the united companies and the Philadelphia and Trenton Company, with

all their interests, were leased for 999 years to the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. The exclusive right to build a connecting railway line between New York and Philadelphia was held by the Camden and Amboy Company until April 2, 1873, when the legislature enacted a general railroad law, which threw the State open to all railway enterprises.

One day, somewhat more than a hundred years ago, Stephen Vail, an awkward-looking country boy, paying no heed to the placard, "Positively no Admittance," strolled into the nail factory of Jeremiah H. Pierson, at Ramapo, New Jersey. Gazing here and there, he attracted no notice at first, but while studying the cut-nail machine, Mr. Pierson caught sight of him, and bluntly ordered him to leave. The lad apologized and walked out; but, being a natural mechanic, he carried in his head, when he left, a perfect picture of the cut-nail machine. Not long thereafter, a similar one was put up at Dover, which turned out enormous quantities of nails at a fine profit.

Years afterwards Judge Stephen Vail (who acquired his title as a lay judge) and Mr. Pierson became friends. The latter once remarked that he had often wondered how Vail learned to make cut nails, having believed that no one besides himself knew the secret, whereupon, to the great entertainment of his friend, Judge Vail told of his early visit to the Ramapo works.

In 1804 Stephen Vail became owner of the Speedwell Iron Works, which were situated about a mile north of Morristown, on the road to Morris Plains at the crossing of the Whippany River. Here were made the boiler and shaft of the steamship *Savannah*, which was the first vessel of its kind to cross the Atlantic. Here were also manufactured

the tires, axles, and cranks of the pioneer American locomotive and the first cast-iron plow. While Professor Samuel F. B. Morse was working on his telegraph, he met Alfred Vail, a son of Judge Vail, to whom he explained his ideas. Alfred became interested in the project and influenced his father to furnish the funds to complete the machinery and take out the patents. Alfred Vail himself made the machin-



SPEEDWELL IRON WORKS

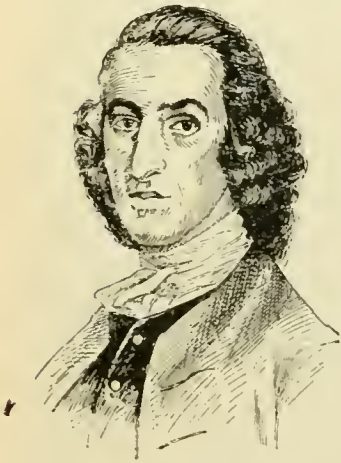
ery covered by the patents. The machine was completed January 11, 1838, and was placed on exhibition in a pattern shop, the building of which is still standing on the Vail property. It was set on the first floor, and about three miles of copper wire, insulated by being wound about with cotton yarn, was coiled around the walls of the second story. Some of the hooks in the side walls remain, and a portion of the wire is preserved. The alphabetical char-

acters and many of the essential features of the electromagnetic telegraph were the invention of Alfred Vail, who was so impressed by the practicability of the crude machine when first exhibited, that he agreed to give Professor Morse all the aid he needed. Alfred Vail and his brother George furnished the impoverished inventor with means, material, and labor for experimentation on a larger scale. So helpful was Alfred Vail that Morse assigned to him a one-fourth interest in his patent. These two men worked together in harmony, and years after Professor Morse wrote: "It is especially to the attention and skill and faith in the full success of the enterprise maintained by Alfred Vail, that is due the success of my endeavors to bring the telegraph at that time creditably before the public."

CHAPTER XIV

GOVERNORS UNDER THE FIRST CONSTITUTION

NEW JERSEY had fourteen governors under her first constitution, all of whom were chosen by the legislature. Every one was honest, patriotic, and well qualified to fill the high office. It is a cause for gratitude and pride to



WILLIAM LIVING-
STON

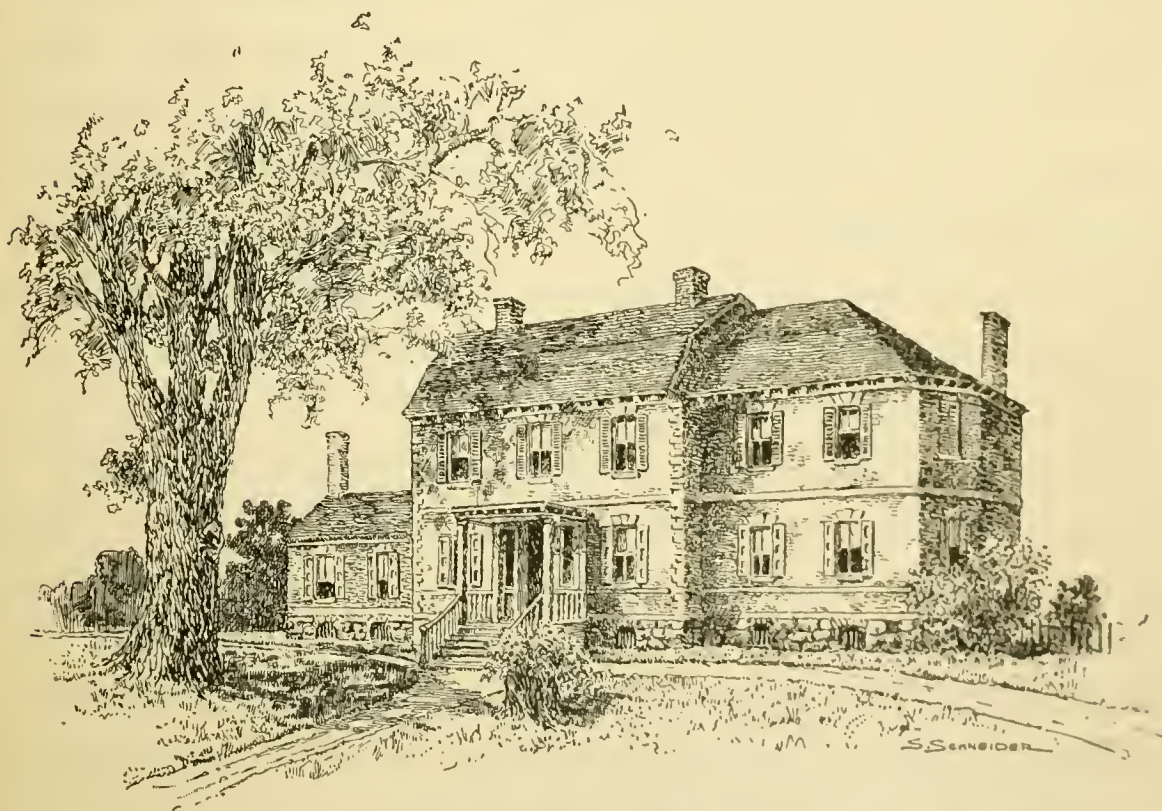
every Jerseyman that the character of all our governors and members of the judiciary, down to the present time, has been almost stainless. Some other States have not been so fortunate. The fact is none the less remarkable, when we recall that New Jersey has been the scene more than once of bitter political contests, when party spirit ran high and danger seemed to threaten. But the skies always cleared, and prosperity and ad-

vancement suffered no check.

William Livingston, the first governor of the State, from 1776-1790, was born at Albany, New York, in 1723, and was of Scotch descent. He was graduated from Yale at the head of his class, when eighteen years old. He became a distinguished lawyer, and removed to Elizabethtown at the age of fifty, having previously bought a tract of land in that section. He was appointed as delegate to the First Continental Congress, and in 1775, the Provincial

Congress made him the second brigadier general of the militia of the colony. His writings against the wrongful measures of England drew wide attention to him. He had not received any special military training and gained no particular fame in that profession.

Fortunately Mr. Livingston was transferred to the field for which he was best fitted. The first legislature under



LIBERTY HALL, LIVINGSTON'S HOME IN ELIZABETHTOWN

the new constitution, which, as we recall, met at Princeton, in August, 1776, elected him governor, continuing to do so, now and then with slight opposition, until his death in 1790. Governor Livingston was very plain in dress and habits, possessed no little literary ability, and because of his tallness and thinness, he was called by the British the "Don Quixote of the Jerseys." He was an earnest Christian, and one of the finest patriots of the Revolution.

William Paterson, who was governor from 1790 to 1793, was an Irishman by birth, and was brought to America, in 1747, when about two years old. He lived first at Trenton, then at Princeton, where he was graduated in 1763, and finally at Somerville. He studied law and was chosen as a delegate to the Provincial Congress in 1775, and also to the Congress which met at Burlington in June, 1776. When the State government was organized, he was made attorney-general, which, during those troublous times, was a difficult and trying office. He was reëlected, but when peace came, he resigned the appointment and made his home in New Brunswick. He was the leader of the delegates sent to Philadelphia in 1787 to form a Constitution for the United States. He advocated the "New Jersey plan," which aimed to maintain State sovereignty, giving to the national government authority to provide for the common defense and welfare. The result was an excellent compromise. Mr. Paterson was chosen as United States senator, with Jonathan Elmer of Cumberland county as his colleague, and took his seat in March, 1789. He resigned in 1790 upon his appointment as governor. He met expectations and was reëlected with slight opposition. He did an important work in revising and remodeling the British statutes, and also in drafting such bills as he thought necessary for the consideration of the legislature. In 1793 President Washington appointed him Justice of the Supreme Court, which office he filled with great credit until his death in 1806.

Richard Howell, governor from 1793 to 1801, was born in Delaware in 1753. When he was fifteen years old, his father removed to Cumberland county, near Bridgeton,

which was the home of the son until his death in 1802. He was one of the young men who helped burn the cargo of tea on the *Greyhound*, at Greenwich, in 1774. Having studied medicine, he served not only as captain and major in the New Jersey Continental line, but also as surgeon. After removing to Trenton, he was elected clerk of the supreme court and chosen governor in 1793. He was elected yearly by the Federalists until 1801, when another party came into power. The late Mrs. Jefferson Davis was a granddaughter of Governor Howell.

Joseph Bloomfield, governor from 1801 to 1802 and from 1803 to 1812, was born at Woodbridge, Middlesex county, in 1755. He was licensed as a lawyer at the age of twenty, and began practice at Bridgeton. He was commissioned as captain in the Third New Jersey Battalion and in 1776 set out to join the expedition against Quebec. Upon reaching Albany, news was received of its failure, and the regiment was stationed near Johnston Hall on the Mohawk to hold the Indians in check. He was appointed judge advocate of the northern army and made major, but falling ill, was forced to give up his commission in the army. In 1783, when William Paterson resigned as attorney-general of the State, Bloomfield was elected as his successor. He was reelected in 1788, and resigned in 1792. Being made a general of militia, he commanded a brigade in quelling the Whisky Insurrection in Pennsylvania in 1794. He was elected governor as a Republican in 1801, but a tie prevented his reelection in 1802, during which year John Lambert, president of the council, filled the office. Bloomfield was elected in 1803 and thereafter until 1812. Soon after the declaration of war with Great

Britain, President Madison appointed him a brigadier general in the army intended for the invasion of Canada. He displayed no special military ability and was soon assigned to the command of a military district, with headquarters, as already stated, at Philadelphia. He served two terms in Congress and died in 1823.

Aaron Ogden, always referred to as "Colonel," was governor for one year from October, 1812. He was born at Elizabethtown in 1756, and was graduated from Princeton College before he was seventeen years old. During the Revolutionary War he entered the army as lieutenant, served gallantly, and remained to the close of the war, reaching the rank of brigade major and inspector. He was twenty-six years of age when he took up the study of law with his brother at Elizabethtown, and was licensed in 1784. One of the foremost Federalists in the State, he was chosen United States senator in February, 1801. In 1812 he became commander in chief of the New Jersey militia, and for ten years (1829-39) was president of the Society of Cincinnati. After his retirement he suffered distressing financial reverses, and once was imprisoned for debt in New York. The State of New Jersey presented him with a tract of land near Jersey City. He was a custom-house officer until his death in 1839.

William Sanford Pennington, governor from 1813 to 1815, was born in Newark, in 1757, and was a farmer boy until the breaking out of the Revolution, when he enlisted, and by his bravery won a lieutenancy. After the war he engaged in mercantile business in Newark and was elected to the assembly in 1797, serving for three years. In 1801 and 1802 he was a member of the council and became a

prominent Democrat. In 1804 he was chosen associate justice of the supreme court and from 1815 to 1826 was a judge of the United States district court. He died in office. He was a "reliable friend, an incorrupt and just judge, and an honest man."

Mahlon Dickerson, governor from 1815 to 1817, was born in Hanover, N.J., in 1770, was graduated from Princeton College in 1789, and practiced law in Pennsylvania. He was a Democrat and was active in politics, until the death of his father called him to Morris county to take charge of the valuable estate left to him. He represented that county in the assembly in 1812 and 1813, and in the latter year was chosen a justice of the supreme court. After serving two terms as governor, he was made United States senator in 1817, and retained this office until 1834, when President Jackson appointed him secretary of the navy. He filled that office under Van Buren, but soon resigned and retired to private life. He served six months as judge of the district court and died in 1853.

Isaac H. Williamson, governor from 1817 to 1829, was born at Elizabethtown in 1767, was licensed as an attorney in 1791, as a counselor in 1796, and was called to be a sergeant at law in 1804. He gained a lucrative practice and attained high rank in his profession. He was admittedly a great lawyer. In February, 1817, when Mahlon Dickerson became United States senator, Williamson was chosen governor. He was reelected with little opposition until 1829. Then the Jackson party secured a majority in the legislature, and he was displaced by Peter D. Vroom. He returned to his profession of law and rapidly regained his valuable practice. In 1831 and 1832 he was a member

of the Council for Essex county, and was unanimously chosen, in 1844, president of the convention which framed the present constitution of the State. Ill health compelled him to resign after a time, and he died before the close of the year.

Peter D. Vroom, governor from 1829 to 1831 and from 1833 to 1836, was born in the township of Hills-



PETER D. VROOM

borough, Somerset county, in December, 1791, and was the youngest son of Peter D. Vroom, a respected citizen, who served with great credit in the Revolution. The son was graduated from Columbia College in 1808 and was licensed as an attorney in 1813. He became a counselor in 1816 and a sergeant in 1828. He began practice at

Schooley's Mountain, but after several changes, settled at Somerville, where he lived for more than twenty years. He took little part in politics, though his sympathies were with the Federalists until 1824, when he became an ardent supporter of President Jackson, as did his father and many leading Federalists.

Mr. Vroom represented Somerset county in the assembly in 1826, 1827, and 1829. General Wall having refused to be the nominee for governor, Mr. Vroom, much against his wishes, was induced to accept the office. He was reëlected in 1830 and 1831, defeated by the friends of Mr. Southard in 1832, but chosen again in 1833, 1834, and 1835. Impaired health caused him to decline a reëlection in 1836. He resumed practice at Somerville, but served as one of the three commissioners, in 1837, appointed by

President Van Buren to adjust claims to reserves of lands, under the treaty made with the Choctaw Indians. He entered Congress in 1838, and soon after removed to Trenton. As a delegate to the constitutional convention of 1844 he took an influential part in the proceedings. In conjunction with Henry W. Green, Stacy G. Potts, and William L. Dayton, he revised the statutes of the State and consolidated the numerous supplements in order that they might conform to the new constitution. Governor Fort nominated ex-Governor Vroom in 1853 as the successor of Chief Justice Green and the senate confirmed the nomination, which, however, was declined by Mr. Vroom.

In the same year he was appointed minister to Prussia. He resided in Berlin until 1857, when he was recalled at his own request. He resumed in Trenton his profession as an advocate, his business being confined mainly to arguments in the higher courts. He was one of the nine New Jersey commissioners to the Peace Convention, which met in Washington in February, 1861. The late William C. Alexander said of him: "He was uniformly kind, gentle, and acceptable, and his colleagues naturally and justly regarded him as the Nestor of the delegation, both as regards age and wisdom." We know that this patriotic effort failed, due, as Mr. Vroom said, to the radicals north and south. Governor Vroom belonged to the finest type of the gentleman of the old school, was an earnest Christian, and had long stood at the head of the bar in New Jersey, when he died in November, 1873.

Samuel L. Southard, who was governor from 1832 to 1833, was born in Baskingridge in 1787. His father

served for many years in Congress and was a man of marked ability. The son was graduated from Princeton in 1804, and spent five years as a tutor in Virginia, during which time he studied law. He took up his residence at Flemington, the county seat of Hunterdon county, and acquired a good practice. He was elected a member of the assembly, and in 1815 became associate justice of the supreme court. Five years later he was chosen United States senator, in which office his brilliant talents attracted wide attention. In 1823 he became secretary of the navy, serving till 1829. He was chosen attorney-general of the State in that year, and was governor, as stated, in 1833. From that year until 1842 he was again United States senator. He died in the latter year.

Elias P. Seeley succeeded Southard as governor in 1833, when the latter was sent to the United States senate, and held the office for a few months. He was born in Cumberland county in 1791, and was licensed as an attorney in 1815. He was an honest and capable official, but does not rank among the distinguished governors of New Jersey, though he might have done so had he held the office longer. He was chosen several times afterward to the legislature and died in 1846.

Governor Vroom now served for three terms more, 1833-1836, after which, owing to ill health, he declined reëlection.

Philemon Dickerson, who was governor from 1836 to 1837, was a brother of Mahlon Dickerson. He was born in Morris county in 1788. He was licensed as an attorney in 1813, and, settling in Paterson, practiced law. In 1833 he was sent to the assembly. He was two years a

member of Congress, and was chosen governor in 1836. The following year the Whigs prevented his reëlection. He was elected again to Congress in 1838, but the election contest prevented him and others from taking their seats till 1840. President Van Buren appointed him judge of the district court in 1841. He held the office until his death in 1862.

William Pennington, who was governor from 1837 to 1843, was the son of Governor William S. Pennington, and like him was born in Newark. The date of his birth was 1796. He was graduated from Princeton College in 1813 and began the practice of law in his native city. He represented Essex county in the assembly in 1828. In 1837 the Whig majority elected him governor and continued to do so until 1843, when the Democrats chose Daniel Haines. Mr. Pennington's good sense, honesty, geniality, and a certain wit made him very popular as the foremost Whig leader in the State. He was elected in 1858 to Congress. A bitter strife arose over the choice of Speaker of the House, which ended at the close of two months with the election of Mr. Pennington. His fairness and tact won the respect of his opponents. He died in February, 1862, his death hastened, if not caused, by an overdose of morphine, given through the mistake of a druggist.

The last governor under the first constitution was Daniel Haines, governor from 1843 to January, 1845, and from 1848 to 1851. He was born in the city of New York, in 1801. He was graduated from Princeton in 1820, admitted to the bar three years later, and settled, in 1824, at Hamburg, Sussex county. He served two terms in the

legislature and refused another reelection. The Democratic majority chose him governor in 1843. He did much to advance the cause of education, and helped in the passage of a law which called a convention to frame a new constitution. By virtue of one of its provisions, he continued in office until the inauguration of his successor, Charles C. Stratton, in January, 1845. In 1847 he was made the Democratic nominee for governor and was elected by a good majority. He served three years, and then resumed the practice of his profession. He was once associated with Daniel Webster in trying the Good-year Rubber Patent cases. In November, 1852, he took his seat as justice of the supreme court and held the office till his death in 1877.

This closes the list of the men who served New Jersey as governors under the first constitution, a period of not quite threescore and ten years. Nearly every one who followed belonged to the same noble stamp. As we have said, the record is a cause for pride and gratitude to all Jerseymen. It would be interesting to study also the lives of the later governors whose achievements have increased the prosperity and glory of the State, but in this book we can give only their names, which will be found in the Appendix.

PERIOD IV — UNDER THE NEW CONSTITUTION (1844-)

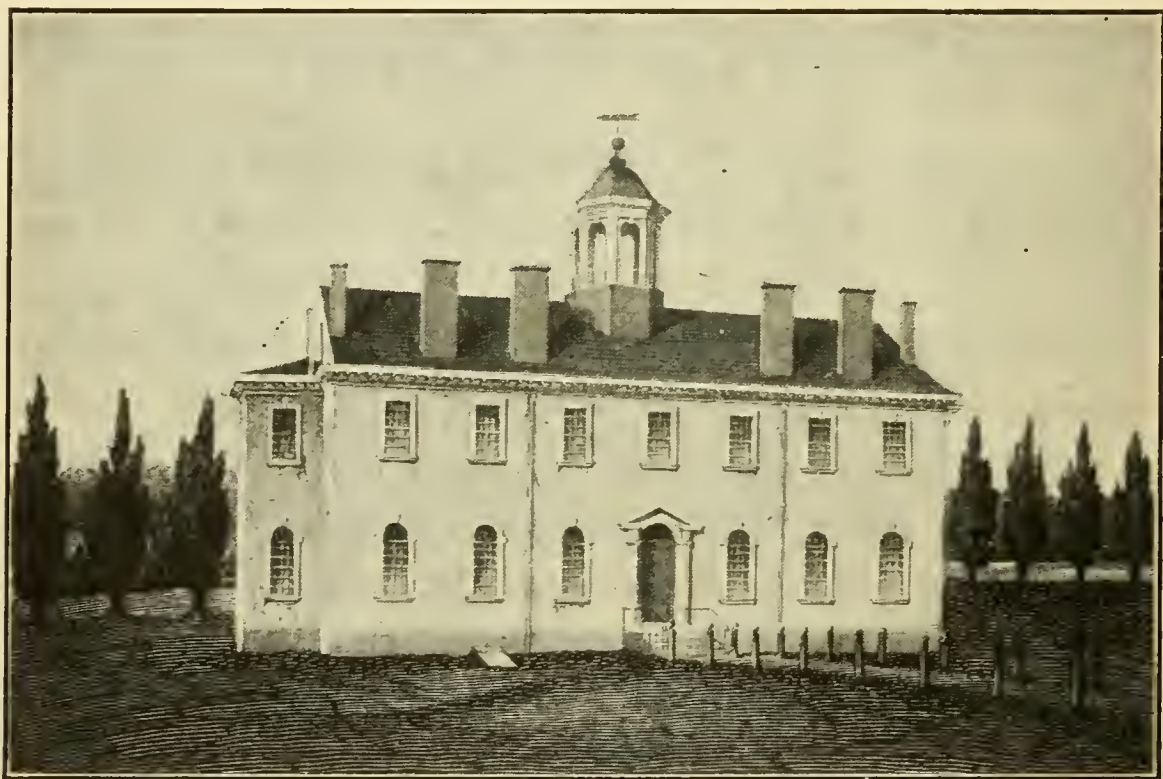
CHAPTER XV

THE NEW CONSTITUTION

NEW JERSEY had long outgrown the constitution of 1776. The organic law had fallen far behind modern ideas, and some of its terms had become absurd. Thus, if Queen Victoria had notified the authorities of the State, in 1840, that she would grant their demands, they, in order to obey the constitution, would have had to renew their allegiance to Great Britain. Of course such a thing was never likely to occur, but the law was as has been stated.

There were other features almost as distasteful. For instance, no man could vote unless he was worth \$250. A similar law caused a rebellion in Rhode Island in 1842. Moreover, if an inhabitant of New Jersey declared that he was worth the sum named, and had lived for one year in the State, he could vote for State and Federal representatives without taking the oath of allegiance, no matter if he was a slave or even a vicious foreigner. Women also voted until November, 1807, when the right was taken from them. The governor had more power than any officer of the same rank in the United States. The agitation for revision of the constitution became so insistent that the legislature called a convention to formulate amendments to it.

Delegates were elected and met in Trenton, March 18, 1844. They were sixty in number, chosen according to the representation of each county in the assembly. Among them were the ablest citizens in the State, including men who had been or were to be chief justices and justices of the supreme court, United States senators, and



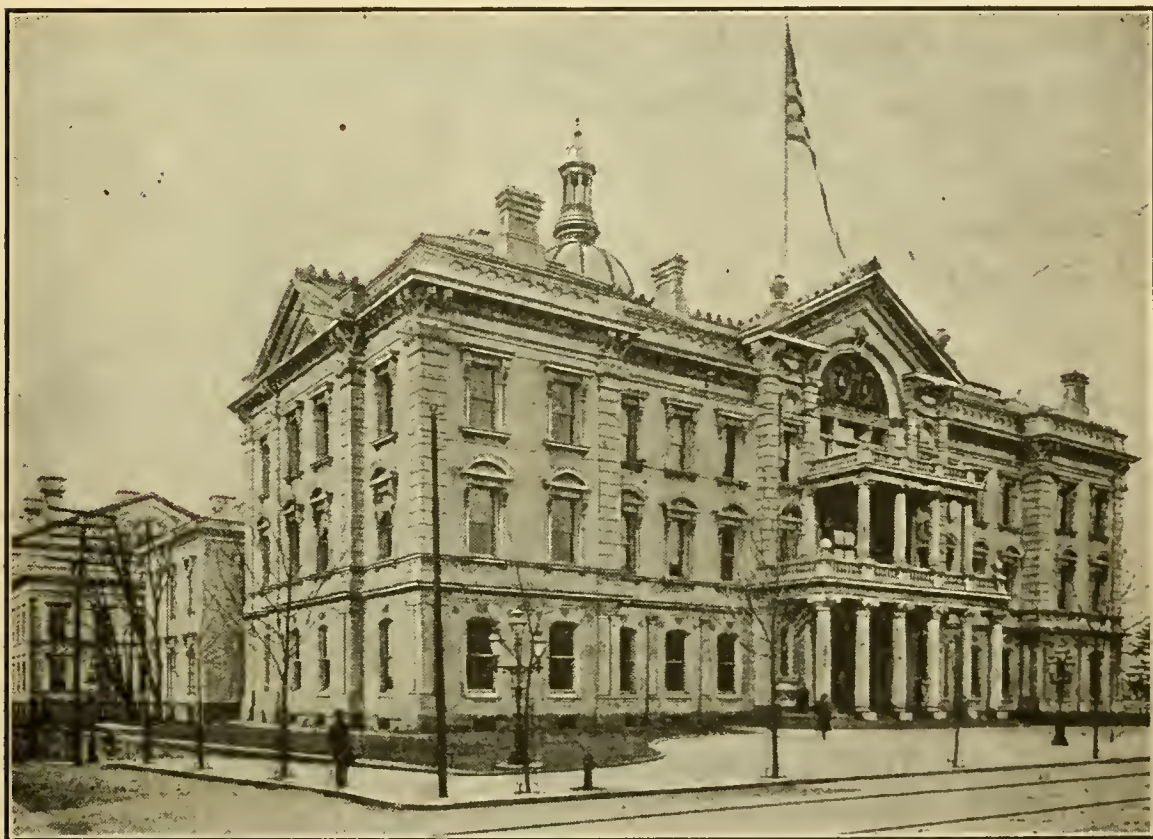
STATE CAPITOL, TRENTON (1794)

governors of the State. The interests of New Jersey could not have been placed in safer hands.

The convention completed its labors June 28, and formally adopted the constitution as amended. The only member who did not vote was a delegate from Burlington county, who belonged to the Society of Friends. He was excused because of the military features in the proposed changes. Not quite two months later the new constitution was submitted to the people. Six sevenths of all the votes

cast were in favor of its adoption. It thus became the fundamental law of the State.

The principal amendments to the old constitution were: The election of the governor was taken from the joint meeting of the legislature and given to the people; his term was made three years, and he could not be chosen a



STATEHOUSE, TRENTON (1910)

second time, until after another governor had served one term; he was no longer chancellor, that office being filled by a person specially appointed. The right to vote was given to every male citizen of the United States who had lived one year in the State and five months immediately before the election in the county where he wished to vote. Suffrage was denied to every pauper, idiot, insane person, and person convicted of a crime, which excluded him

“from being a witness, unless he was pardoned, or restored by law to the right of suffrage.”

The State is one among twenty-nine in which at present school suffrage for women prevails in some form. New Jersey differs from most of the other States in that its judges are appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate, instead of being elected by the people.

As in the case of the national constitution, it has been found necessary from time to time to add amendments to the constitution of New Jersey. One of these prohibits special legislation and directs that taxable property shall be assessed under general laws and by uniform rules, based on its actual value. Another amendment forbids State grants to any municipal corporation, society, association, or industrial corporation. A later amendment gave a death blow to gambling at race tracks.

Every boy and girl should learn the chief provisions of the constitution, and study the questions upon which the voters will be required to cast their ballots. It is the duty of all voters to show an active interest in politics and public matters. They should strive to gain a right view of such questions, and then make sure that, so far as possible, honest, trustworthy, and competent persons are elected to office. In no other way can politics be purified, corruption stamped out, and the blessings of good government secured.

CHAPTER XVI

WAR WITH MEXICO, THE CIVIL WAR, WAR WITH SPAIN

THE new constitution of New Jersey was no more than fairly in operation, when the United States became involved in a war with Mexico. The immense but sparsely settled region known as Texas belonged to that country. Texas declared herself free and, after a hard struggle, won her independence in 1836. She was a republic for several years, and then asked to be admitted into the American Union.

The question of the admission of Texas roused bitter feeling in the United States. The South favored granting the request, because it would add a vast slave area to the country. The majority in the North opposed the petition for the same reason. Moreover, Mexico refused to acknowledge the independence of her former province. None the less, Texas formally entered the Union at the close of 1845, and asked our government to protect her against the armed forces of Mexico.

Fighting began a few months later, and was kept up until the surrender of the city of Mexico in the autumn of 1847. Peace was made soon afterward and an immense extent of territory came into our possession. The Mexican soldiers of those days could bear no comparison with ours, and the campaign in their country was a series of American victories.

New Jersey acted a valiant part in the war with Mexico, as she has done in all the wars in which our country has been engaged. General Stephen Watts Kearny, member of a distinguished family of this State, who had served throughout the War of 1812, established a civil government in Santa Fé and fought the battle of San Pasqual, the brilliant success of which made him a major general. In 1847 he was appointed governor of California.

Commodore Robert F. Stockton, a still more famous Jerseyman, who had also served in the navy in the War of 1812, joined with John C. Frémont in the conquest of California. He captured Los Angeles and organized a government.

New Jersey favored the Mexican war from the first. The presidential call for troops named the quota of the State as five companies of infantry, organized as a battalion. Only four were made ready, and they left New York Harbor in time to join in the triumphant advance of General Scott from Vera Cruz to the capital of Mexico.

The conflict with our "next-door neighbor" and the later one with Spain were only skirmishes as compared with the stupendous war that raged from 1861 to 1865. In that struggle Americans were pitted against Americans, and the contest was the most terrific of modern times. Slavery was the cause of the War for the Union. When, in 1619, the little band of negroes was brought from Africa to Jamestown, Virginia, and sold to the settlers, the seed was sown whose awful harvest was gathered nearly two and a half centuries later. Slavery spread to all the colonies and was as legal as the ownership of horses and cattle. The climate in the northern States was not favor-

able to the institution, but in the South it was. So, as the years went on, slavery disappeared north of "Mason and Dixon's line." This line, which was run during colonial times by two surveyors named Mason and Dixon, marked the boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland. After a while it served to show the division between the free and the slave States.

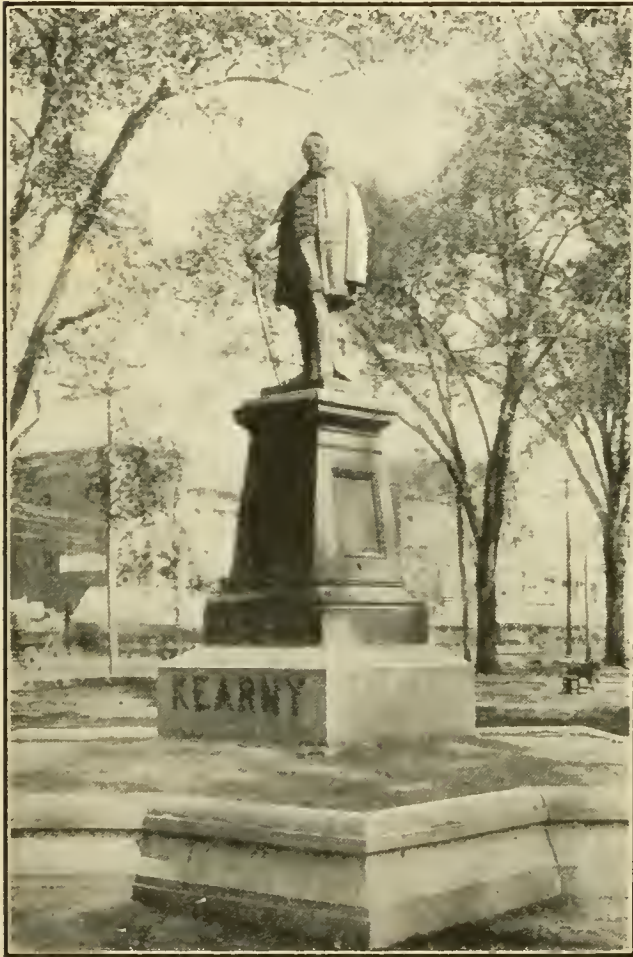
These are not the pages in which to tell the story of the Civil War. That belongs elsewhere, and we shall merely glance at the services of New Jersey in the great struggle, whose results will be felt for ages to come. On the second morning after the surrender of Fort Sumter, President Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand volunteers with which to enforce the national authority. Hardly a man, North or South, had the remotest idea of the gigantic nature of the impending conflict.

The quota which New Jersey was first required to furnish was 3123 men. More than three times that number were eager to volunteer. The funds offered by the banks and individuals exceeded half a million dollars. In two weeks the four regiments were ready for service. The legislature was convened in extra session, April 30, and acts were passed, authorizing the chief cities to issue bonds, from whose sales the families of volunteers were to be cared for. A State loan of \$2,000,000 was ordered, and measures were taken for the formation of new regiments, river and coast defenses, and for the purchase of arms and military stores.

President Lincoln's first call was for three months' volunteers. The New Jersey brigade was mustered into the United States service at Trenton, May 1, 1861, and was the first to reach Washington, which was then in danger

of capture by the Confederates. During the disastrous battle of Bull Run (July 21, 1861) the brigade was held in reserve; but it was mustered out ten days later, without having taken part in the hostilities.

The second presidential call for troops, issued May 3, 1861, demanded men to serve for three years or the war.



GENERAL PHILIP KEARNY

The quota of New Jersey was three regiments. When the government asked for them, Governor Olden replied that they were ready and awaiting orders. A battery and another regiment were added in July to the three regiments, the whole being known as the first New Jersey brigade. It served throughout the war and took a gallant part in many of the hardest fought battles. General Philip Kearny, who served with distinction in many of the campaigns of the Civil War, was for some time commander of this brigade.

The second brigade was raised under the third call (July 24, 1861), and included four regiments of infantry and a battery, which also saw severe service.

About a year later, the President called for three hundred thousand more volunteers to serve for three years or until

The quota of New Jersey was three regiments. When the government asked for them, Governor Olden replied that they were ready and awaiting orders. A battery and another regiment were added in July to the three regiments, the whole being known as the first New Jersey brigade. It served throughout the war and took a gallant part in many of the hardest fought battles. General Philip Kearny, who

the close of the war. New Jersey's quota of five regiments was furnished with the same promptness as before. In addition she placed a regiment of cavalry in the field. So quick was our State to provide all the volunteers called for, that there was no draft, as there was elsewhere, to meet the demands of the national government. Moreover, thousands of Jerseymen enlisted in other States. Of the troops whose service ranged from four years to one hundred days, New Jersey provided 79,348, with 8957 additional men not credited to her. The total call was 78,248, and the whole number furnished was 88,305.¹

The State never paid any bounty, but townships, municipal authorities, and counties gave millions of dollars for volunteers. No soldiers displayed greater bravery in the field. To gain a true idea of what these troops did for their country, one must read the full history of the great war itself. The character of the patriots was shown by the declaration of General Philip Kearny. A desperate enterprise had been intrusted to him. He asked the privilege of selecting the men who were to undertake the daring work. His superior officer inquired what troops he preferred.

"Give me Jerseymen," he said; "*they never flinch!*"

Joel Parker was the "War Governor" of New Jersey. Like many of his fellow-Democrats, he strongly opposed hostilities until the firing on Fort Sumter. He then became one of the most ardent supporters of the national government. He was elected governor in 1862 and served until 1866. During the Confederate invasion of Pennsylvania, in 1863, he sent several organized regiments thither

¹ Francis Bazley Lee's "New Jersey as a Colony and a State."

for the protection of the State, and was so prompt and vigorous in aiding the administration that President Lincoln warmly thanked him. He established a method of settling the war debt by which not a bond of New Jersey sold for less than par, and when peace came, the State treasury had a surplus of \$200,000.

Born in Freehold in 1816, Governor Parker was the finest type of Jerseyman. He was physically large, genial,



JOEL PARKER

and patriotic, and was regarded with affection throughout the State. Few men were as widely esteemed as he. He was proud of New Jersey, and delivered addresses many times on its Revolutionary history. In 1868 the New Jersey delegation to the Democratic national convention unanimously supported his nomination for the presi-

dency. He was governor again in 1870, and at the close of his term became attorney-general. He was appointed justice of the supreme court in 1880 and reappointed in 1887, having declined, in 1883, a third nomination for governor. He died in 1888.

With the surrender of Lee at Appomattox in April, 1865, the chapter of warfare and disunion came to an end and the beginnings were made of a Union that is destined to last as the hope of the world through the coming centuries.

General George B. McClellan, at one time commander of the Army of the Potomac, was always popular in New



GENERAL GEORGE B.
McCLELLAN



ARRANGING LEE'S SURRENDER

Jersey. He was elected governor by a large majority in 1879 and served with great acceptability, dying at his home on Orange Mountain in 1885.

The United States remained at peace for a generation following the close of the War for the Union. Small threatening clouds appeared once or twice in the sky, but quickly dissolved and left the sunlight as clear as before. Then came a war of a kind rarely heard of among nations, for it was waged solely in behalf of suffering humanity, and without a selfish thought on the part of the United States.

The Spanish rule in Cuba was so cruel that the world was horrified. The beautiful, fertile island lies so near our doors that our sympathy was deeply stirred. It is, however, doubtful whether our government ever would have intervened, except for an incident which roused Americans

to irrestrainable rage. That incident was the blowing up of the battleship *Maine*, in the harbor of Havana, on the night of February 15, 1898. The shattered warship went down in a few minutes, carrying 266 officers and men to their deaths. An investigation seemed to point directly to the Spaniards, or their sympathizers, as the perpetrators of this crime. It is only just to say, however, that their guilt in this matter has never been established as a certainty.

Our government notified Spain that she must withdraw her land and naval forces from Cuba at once, on pain of having them driven out. Spain refused, and the war which followed lasted about three months and a half. The Spanish forces were overwhelmingly defeated on land and water, and Spain had no choice but to surrender Cuba and the Philippines.

In this insignificant struggle President McKinley asked for one hundred and twenty-five thousand volunteers to serve for two years. The quota of New Jersey was three regiments of infantry, each organized into three battalions of four companies each. All were mustered into service by May 15. A later demand required another New Jersey regiment of twelve companies.

Before the beginning of the war, but when it was certain to come, the Navy Department called upon the Naval Reserves to furnish seamen to serve on the vessels of the navy. In accordance with a general plan, the *Montauk* was refitted at League Island, Philadelphia, for duty off Portland, Maine. Several detachments of officers and men reported for duty on the *Montauk*, but she was not fully ready until the latter part of April.

Meanwhile the government had asked Governor Voor-

ees for a detachment of men, who served on the *Resolute*. In the destruction of Admiral Cervera's fleet, the *Resolute* was under fire from a shore battery. Afterward, she carried prisoners from the *Colon*, and then sailed for New York, where she received nurses and stores for the sick and wounded. She joined the U.S.S. *Newark* in bom-



U.S.S. *NEWARK*

barding Manzanillo, but before the bombardment was completed, the assailants were notified that the protocol of peace had been signed.

A strong battalion of the East was mustered into the United States service in May and soon sailed on the *Badger* for Provincetown, Massachusetts, to report for duty with the North Atlantic patrol squadron. She next went to Key West and to Havana, where she helped in blockading that port. Then she joined the blockading fleet off Nuevitas. The *Badger* was the flagship of Commodore Watson for a few days. At the conclusion of hostilities,

she sailed north and the detachment was mustered out of service.

Cuba was freed from the oppressive rule of Spain, and the United States, having seen the Republic established, withdrew its authority from the island on May 20, 1902. Our flag was hauled down at the Government Palace, Havana, and that of Cuba took its place. Thus we showed the world that we were honest in our declaration that our sole purpose in intervening was to relieve the suffering people from their oppressors.

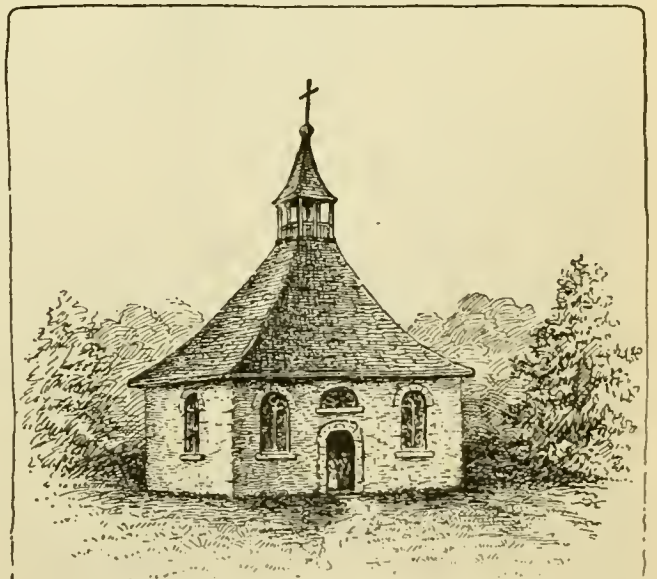
Political disturbances in Cuba, however, became so serious in 1906 that our government was obliged to intervene in the interests of law and order. The military occupation begun at that time continued until March 31, 1909, when the island was evacuated by American troops. During the occupancy benefits were conferred upon Cuba which will be felt for generations to come.

CHAPTER XVII

THE LEADING CITIES OF NEW JERSEY

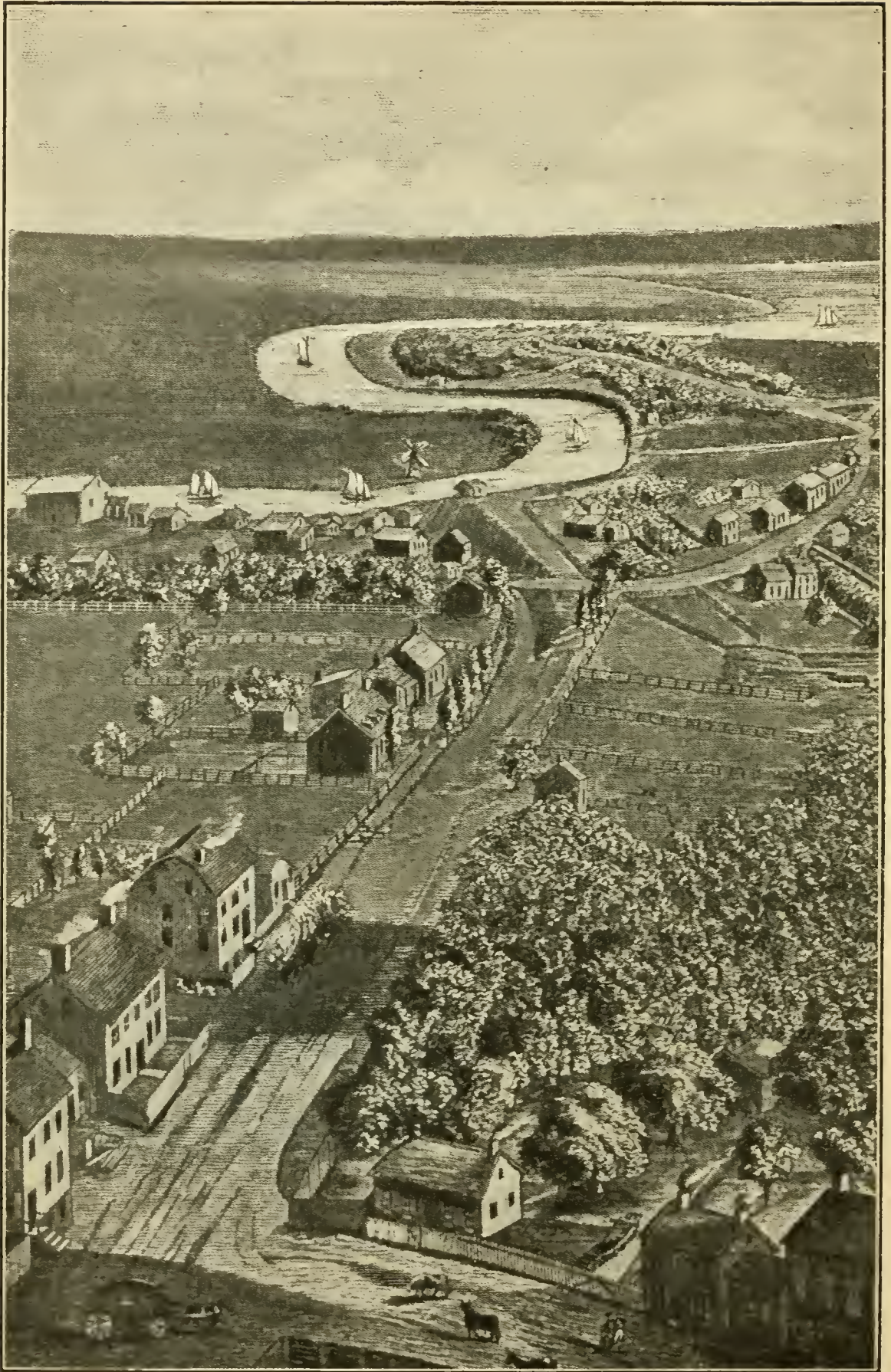
AT the opening of the twentieth century New Jersey had seven cities, each with more than sixty thousand inhabitants, viz. Newark, Jersey City, Paterson, Trenton, Camden, Elizabeth, and Hoboken. Although half the State is uncleared forest land, Massachusetts and Rhode Island are the only States that are more densely populated.

Newark leads all the other cities with a population, in 1910, of 347,469. Founded in 1666, less than half a century after the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, it is one of the oldest towns in the country. When the little band from Connecticut put up their huts on the marshy lowlands, New Jersey was a wilderness, through which roamed wild animals and equally wild Indians.



FIRST CHURCH, NEWARK

One of the first things done by those pioneers was to build a small church which stood nearly opposite the pres-



EARLY VIEW OF NEWARK AND THE PASSAIC RIVER

ent First Presbyterian Church. Two men with loaded guns kept watch in the cupola during service for the Indians who never came, and one fourth of the male adults brought their weapons to church, just as they had been accustomed to do in New England.

If the village grew slowly, it was prosperous from the beginning. At the end of ten years, it had, in addition to the church, an inn, a grist mill, and a stanch boat which carried the produce to Elizabethtown and New York and brought back the purchases made in those places. Governor Carteret wrote home glowing praises of the Newark cider. John Catlin opened a school in 1676. The parents of those who attended had to pay for the privilege. Although new settlers came from Connecticut, the malaria from the marshes kept others away. One hundred years after the first cabin was put together, Newark contained less than a thousand people. The first charter was granted in 1712.

The awakening came early in the last century. The little town was well known for its excellent shoes, harnesses, wagons, and carriages, all of which were in wide demand. Moses Combs was the first manufacturer in Newark. His boots and shoes were popular in the South, and he grew wealthy. Then Seth Boyden arrived at the close of the War of 1812; and did a service for the town and for the country itself, which will always be remembered with gratitude. He was a genius in the way of invention. His foundry produced the finest of tools and machines. He invented a method of casting malleable iron. He discovered that electricity not only descends from the sky to the earth, but often passes from the earth to the sky.

Seth Boyden was the first man to make patent leather. He also experimented with the little wild strawberry, until he

evolved the big, luscious delicacy that is a delight to everybody.

While on the high tide of prosperity, Newark was smitten by the "hard times" of 1837. It looked for a while as if the town were doomed to ruin. Men who were wealthy one day dropped to the depths of poverty the next day. Gaunt, famishing workmen tramped up and down the streets, vainly looking for the means to earn the price of a loaf of



MONUMENT TO SETH BOYDEN

bread. It was years before Newark recovered from the staggering blow. When it did rally, however, its prosperity was greater than before.

The first step had been taken in 1813 to furnish free public schools for the children of the poor. In 1833 legislative permission was obtained to divide the city into four wards, and in 1836 the present school system was established. It was in April of the latter year that Newark became a real city, and began lighting its streets with oil lamps. Ten years later gas took their place. In 1840 the population was 17,000. It doubled in the next ten years, and

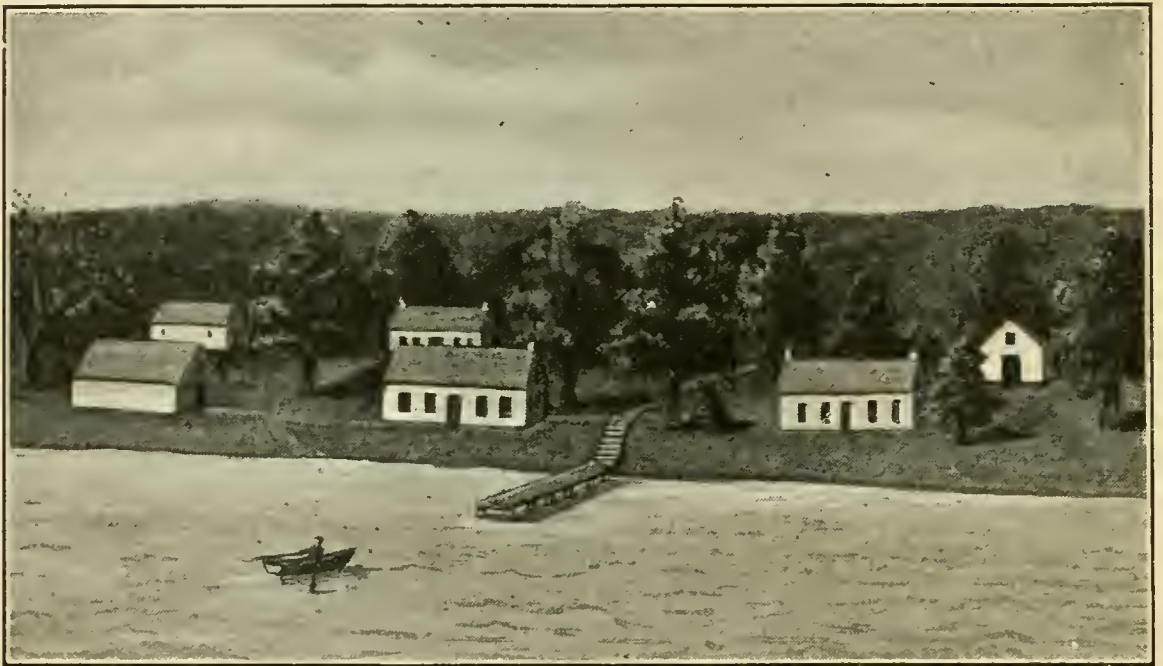
in the following ten years doubled again. At the opening of the War for the Union, its inhabitants numbered 75,000. With its population of about 350,000 in 1910, it ranks as the fourteenth city in the United States.

The coming of the thread manufactories, varnish factories, chemical manufactories, jewelry and electrical shops added to the wealth of the city. The leather industry had much to do with Newark's growth, and the making of machinery, wearing apparel, and small metal articles was largely carried on. The manufacture of jewelry naturally caused that of silverware and watch cases. Newark supplies a large part of the world's watch cases.

Emperor William of Germany pronounced the silverware made at the Newark plant of Tiffany and Company the finest exhibition of workmanship of its kind ever produced in any country in the world. It was in Newark that Thomas A. Edison established his first large workshop, although his later experiments were conducted at Menlo Park, N.J. The 765 manufacturing plants of 1860 have become 1800, and the capital invested in industry has grown from \$14,000,000 to nearly \$160,000,000, while the value of the yearly marketed product has increased from \$28,000,000 to more than \$200,000,000.

The schools of Newark are among the best in the Union, its houses of worship are so numerous that it has been called the "City of Churches," and its public buildings are beautiful and impressive. Among them is the Free Library, one of the finest in the State. Its principal charitable institutions are the City Reform School, the Orphan Asylum, the Home for the Friendless, and St. Barnabas and St. Michael hospitals.

Jersey City, with a population in 1910 of 267,779, ranks second in New Jersey. It contains the sites of the earliest settlements. Jersey City, as at present constituted, was formed by the consolidation of Bergen, Hudson City, and Greenville with the original and smaller Jersey City, in the years 1869-73, and includes within its boundaries Paulus Hook, Communipaw, and Harsimus, places prominent in the



EARLY VIEW OF COMMUNIPAW

early history of the section. All these were included in the tract granted to Michael Pauw in 1630 and called Pavonia.

As we have seen, settlements were begun at Bergen and other parts of Pavonia about the time that Manhattan Island was first occupied, or soon thereafter. These settlements were rendered insecure by reason of troubles with the Indians. After the land lying between the Hudson River on the east and Newark Bay and the Hackensack River on the west had been purchased from the Indians by Governor Stuyvesant and the Council of New Nether-

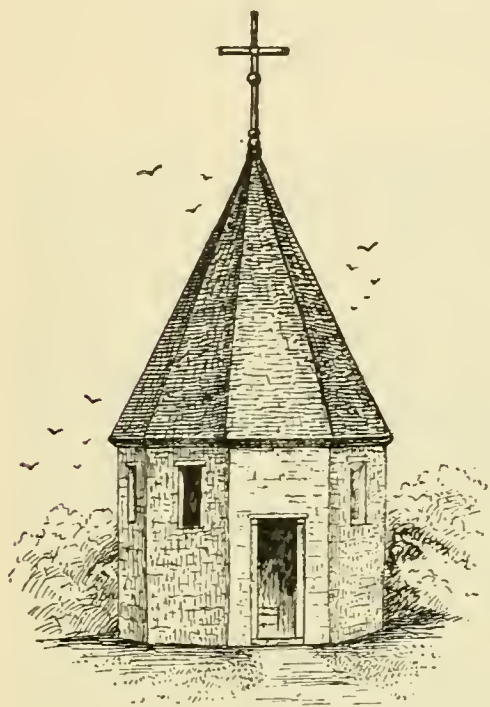
land in 1658, the settlers petitioned for permission to establish a village on the land behind Communipaw. The petition was granted on August 16, 1660. Bergen was accordingly founded as a village in 1660, and was laid out by Jacques Cortelyou, the first surveyor of New Amsterdam. It had the form of a square, each side being 800 feet long, and was fortified by a stockade, erected on the sides of the square. In the middle of the square an open space 225 feet long and 160 feet wide, was reserved. The remaining space was divided into lots and allotted to the settlers. Although their farms, which were called "buytentuyn," extended for some distance beyond the village, the settlers were required to have their homes within the stockade, so that they might be able to protect themselves against the attacks of the Indians. The plan of the village is still preserved. In place of the stockade we have city streets, and the open space in the middle is retained as Bergen Square. A local court of justice was established September 5, 1661.

A site for a village was also surveyed by Cortelyou in 1660 at Communipaw and a palisade was afterwards erected. In order that the settlers of Bergen and Communipaw might be able to reach New Amsterdam more easily, a ferry was established at Communipaw in 1661.

That the founders of Bergen were solicitous about the education of their children is shown by the fact that when the village was laid out, one plot was reserved as a site for the village school. This is the first site in the State used for school purposes, and on it is located the present imposing School No. 11, the fifth, probably, to be erected on this plot. Soon after the founding of Bergen, the first school was established in 1662, under the charge of Engel-

bert Stuyphuysen. He was the first teacher in New Jersey of whom there is any record. The first school building was erected in 1664.

The Dutch settlers of Bergen were also the first to organize a church, in 1660. The first church building was erected about 1662. In Bergen, therefore, were established the first municipal government, the first church, and the first school of the State.



CHURCH AT BERGEN IN 1680

On September 22, 1668, Governor Carteret granted a new charter to the town of Bergen. The settlement grew rapidly. The inhabitants were industrious, and devoted themselves earnestly to clearing and cultivating their lands. They found a ready market for their crops in

New York, and enjoyed the prosperity of a peaceful and successful farming community to the time of the Revolutionary War, during which they were loyal to the cause of the colonies, and suffered much from the frequent raids of British soldiers. The town of Bergen was rechartered March 24, 1855. It was chartered as a city in April, 1868.

The original and smaller Jersey City included at first only Paulus Hook, but was subsequently enlarged to include all the lowland immediately adjacent to the Hudson River, and extending to Bergen. The location, directly opposite the metropolis of the country, marked it as the site of one of the future great cities of the country. Paulus Hook,

for over a century, had been owned by a single family, — the Van Vorsts. A ferry, erected before the Revolution (in 1764), connected it with New York, and it was the starting point of the stage line to Philadelphia. A score of stages entered and left Paulus Hook daily.

The tract, containing 117 acres, was conveyed to Anthony Dey in March, 1804. Cornelius van Vorst was to receive in payment, six thousand "Spanish-milled dollars," secured by an irredeemable mortgage. This tract was inclosed by the Hudson River, Harsimus Bay, Communipaw Bay, and a straight line running between the two bays. The population of Paulus Hook at that time did not number twenty persons.

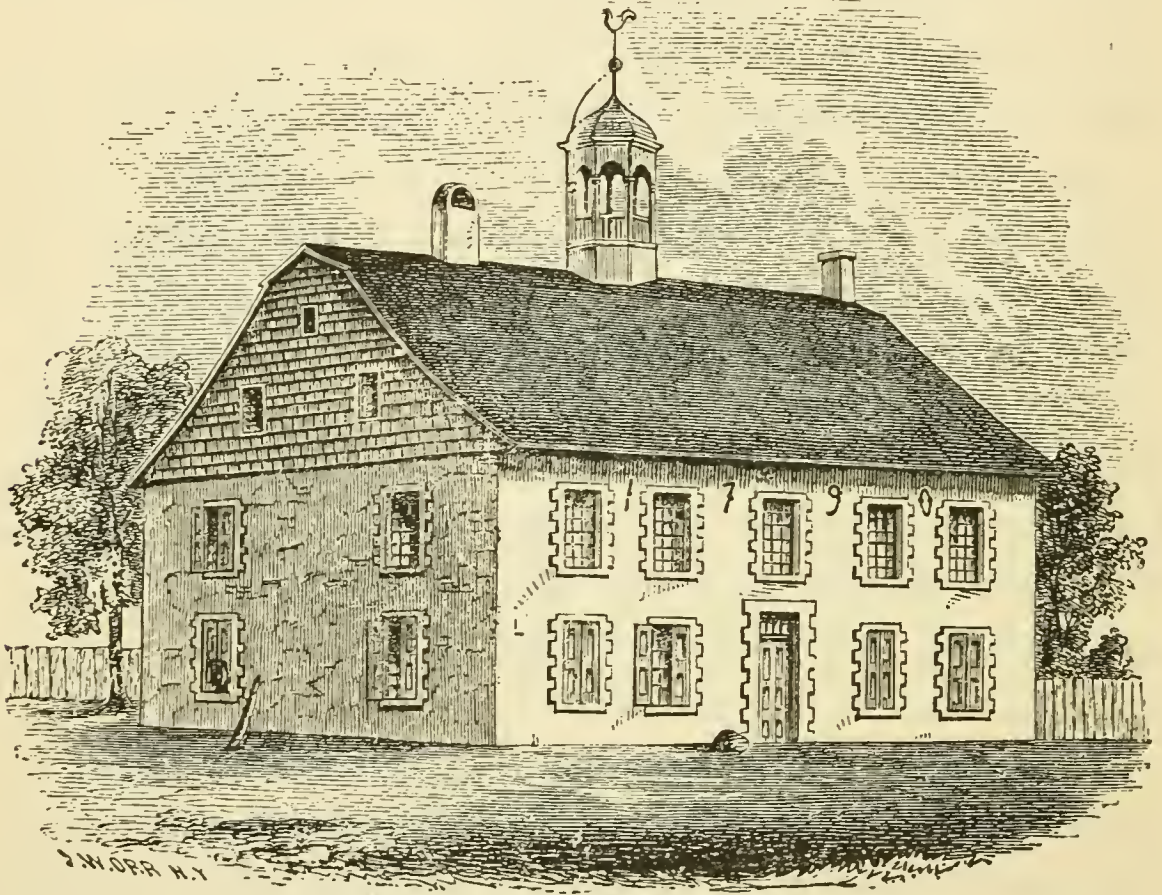
In January, 1820, the City of Jersey was incorporated by the legislature. Another charter was granted in 1829, a better system of government was organized, and new industries were brought into the town. In 1838 the city was incorporated as Jersey City, with a mayor and common council.

Hudson City and Greenville originally formed parts of Bergen and as such are associated with its eventful history. They were established as separate municipalities in April, 1855 and March, 1863, respectively. As has been stated, Jersey City, Bergen, Hudson City, and Greenville were consolidated into a greater Jersey City.

The charter of the consolidated city has undergone many changes, but its growth has been amazing. It is the terminal of the leading railway lines of the country; it contains the docks of important transatlantic steamship companies; and is connected with New York by numerous steam ferries and by tunnels. There are plans for span-

ning the Hudson by a great bridge similar to those which now join Manhattan and Brooklyn.

The generosity of New Jersey in providing for education is strikingly illustrated in Jersey City. All the schools are sanitary structures of the finest type. The High School building recently completed cost \$520,000. It is sur-



COLUMBIAN ACADEMY, ERECTED IN BERGEN IN 1790

rounded by ten acres of ground, which, at an expense of \$100,000, has been converted into a public park. The Free Public Library is a beautiful building, containing one of the largest collections of books in the State.

Jersey City ships a vast amount of grain, and its manufactures include foundry and machine products, railroad cars, refined sugar and molasses, dressed meats, tobacco, rubber and silk goods, chemicals, lumber, malt liquors,

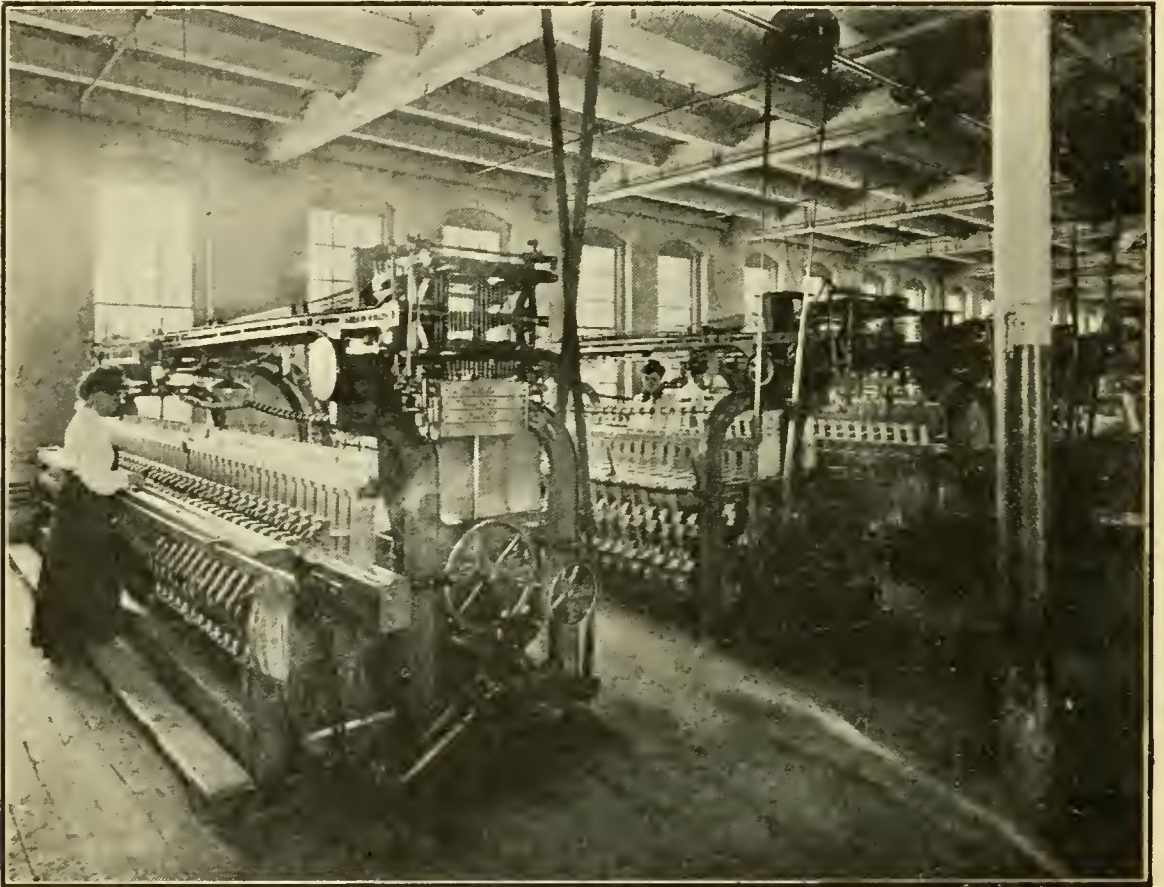
watches, iron, steel, brass, zinc, pencils, soap, and candles. The population passed the quarter-million mark before 1910 and is steadily increasing.

Paterson, with a population in 1910 of 125,600, ranks third. It owes its existence to the Passaic Falls, which afford the finest water power in the State. Alexander Hamilton saw the possibilities of the section, and, in 1791, secured from the New Jersey legislature an act incorporating a society, which by means of elaborate plans intended to develop the water power and lay the foundations of an important city. The scheme, however, made no headway until 1831, when Paterson, — named for Governor William Paterson, who signed the act incorporating the city, — was cut off from the old township of Acquackanonk. The city was incorporated in 1851.

Paterson has prospered to a remarkable degree. It was long famous for the manufacture of locomotives. Its superb triumphs of mechanism have gone to every part of the globe. When Commodore Perry made his first visit to Japan, in 1853, he laid a short railway track, over which a small locomotive and cars were run. The Japanese were filled with admiring wonder, for never before had they seen anything of the kind. The engine had been specially ordered for this exhibition from Paterson.

In 1902 a conflagration destroyed the business center and a large portion of the residential district of Paterson. The year following, a flood desolated the city, and in the year succeeding that, a cyclone spread death and destruction on every hand. The property loss from these visitations amounted to \$12,000,000. The sympathy of the whole country, and of peoples across the ocean, was stirred.

All the kind offers of help, however, were gratefully but sturdily declined. Paterson set an example for municipalities elsewhere by refusing to receive any aid from outside sources. With splendid vigor, courage, and wisdom, the city repaired its waste places, and upon the ruins of the old, erected a greater city than existed before.



SILK MILL, PATERSON

The city leads all others in the Union in the silk industry and ranks fifth in manufactures. Its principal products are those of the foundry and machine shop, cotton and linen thread, flax, hemp, and jute goods, paper, and chemicals.

Trenton, the fourth city in point of population, had 96,815 inhabitants in 1910. We have learned in previous pages of the early history of Trenton. As the capital of New

Jersey, it contains the most important State institutions. The first Capitol or State House was built at a cost of less than \$20,000, but it has since been improved, added to, beautified, and rebuilt, until it is one of the finest structures of its kind in the Union.

The State Arsenal was erected in 1797 and was used for a time as the State Prison. Among its interesting relics



TRENTON POTTERY

are a French bronze gun of the date of 1758, a gun captured at the battle of Trenton, and two taken at Yorktown. The Lunatic Asylum, known as the State Hospital, was opened for the reception of patients in May, 1848. Its capacity has been increased from time to time and it now accommodates about 1500 patients. Its location, two miles north of the city, was chosen because of a large spring of the purest water. The legend is that when General Sullivan and his command were on their way to Trenton,

to take part in the battle of December 26, 1776, they halted and slaked their thirst at this famous fountain.

Trenton leads all other cities in the country in the production of pottery, and its iron rolling and woolen mills have long been important. Rubber manufactures have of late years assumed great prominence. The city contains the Normal and Model Schools (see pages 209, 210), the State Home for Girls, the State Prison, and the School for Deaf Mutes.

Camden, with a population in 1910 of 94,538, ranks fifth among the cities of New Jersey. Its situation as regards Philadelphia is similar to that of Jersey City in relation to New York. For more than a century Camden was a drowsy hamlet, content to slumber in the shadow of the city across the river, that had once been the most populous in the Union and the capital of the young Republic. But the construction of the Camden and Amboy railroad, the West Jersey system, the Camden and Atlantic, and other railway lines gave an impetus to settlement and enterprise, and Camden soon took rank among the most prosperous cities in the State. It has extensive iron works, shipyards, cotton and woolen mills, and many manufacturing interests. It was chartered in 1828, when its population was less than 3000.

Elizabeth, the sixth city, had in 1910 a population of 73,409. Much of the early history of this city has been recorded in previous pages. It was settled in 1664 by a company from Long Island, being then known as *Elizabethtown*. It was chartered as the borough of Elizabeth in 1789, incorporated as a town in 1796, chartered as a city in 1855, and rechartered in 1863. It is an important rail-

road junction and coaling port. It has the most extensive sewing machine works in the world and is also known for its large industries in cars, cordage, pumps, foundries, and chemicals.

Hoboken, the seventh city in rank, had a population in 1910 of 70,324. It was only a short time after the Revolution that John Stevens bought the site of the present city of Hoboken. He saw its future; but when he divided the ground into building lots, and offered them for sale in 1804, Paulus Hook proved the greater attraction. He knew, however, that his reward would soon come. The great city of New York overflows in all directions, and the ever increasing army of commuters make their homes among the outlying towns on both sides of the river. Hoboken was chartered as a city in 1855. The growth of Hoboken has been almost unparalleled. The city contains extensive iron foundries, a large coal and iron trade, and is the terminus of several important steamship lines. Edwin A. Stevens, through his will, richly endowed the Stevens Institute of Technology in Hoboken, and it was opened in 1871. The institution ranks among the foremost of its kind in the United States.

Bayonne, with its immense coal docks and petroleum refineries, is growing rapidly, and the number of inhabitants in 1910 was 55,545. Bayonne and Union townships were organized in 1861, and the city of Bayonne in 1869. Its population at that date was barely one tenth of what it is to-day.

New Jersey has long been the watering place of the nation. The seashore resorts are crowded every summer, and many of them have a large resident population. Long

Branch, Cape May, Asbury Park, Ocean Grove, Avon, Bay Head, and Atlantic City are the most popular. The growth of the last-named city has been phenomenal.



BEACH AT ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY

Every possible attraction is provided there, and visitors are drawn thither from every part of the Union.

The climate is so invigorating and equable that it has become a favorite winter resort. Thousands who have been accustomed to spend the cold months in Florida and the South have found Atlantic City so much superior that they are glad to seek health and strength in this enterprising city by the sea.

CHAPTER XVII

THE LIFE-SAVING SERVICE

THE United States has one of the longest lines of coast in the world. Including the Great Lakes, it is more than ten thousand miles in extent, and no coast is more dangerous than the shore of New Jersey. It is said that if all the vessels wrecked between Sandy Hook and Little Egg Harbor could be placed end to end, the line would not show a break anywhere between those points.

Two causes make the approach to New York so perilous. The coasts of Long Island and New Jersey converge toward the metropolis, so that a ship, when caught in one of the tempests that sometimes sweep across the ocean, has to choose upon which shore it will be stranded. Again, a bar runs parallel with the beach at a varying distance therefrom of two hundred yards to half a mile. The water on this bar is about two feet deep, so that a vessel driven toward shore strikes long before it can get within reach of the anxious people on the beach.

Scores of wrecks on the Jersey coast have been of a thrilling character. We shall tell about one, as it was told to us by "Uncle Tommy Cook," well remembered by those who used to visit Squan Beach — now Point Pleasant — a generation and more ago. His memory ran back to the opening of the last century, and a part of the house in which he lived was built before the Revolution.

“One stormy night in February,” said the old man, “I was awakened by the rocking of my bed and the swaying of the room. I put on my tarpaulins, made everything about my clothing secure, lit a lantern, and plunged into the storm.

“It was snowing heavily, and again and again I was pushed back several paces. It was a fourth of a mile to the beach, and the hurricane drove the blinding flakes horizontally through the air. When halfway to the sea, I turned and backed the rest of the distance. It was like shoving against a loaded wagon to force my way over the sandy bluff. When I did so, I caught glimpses of a dozen men who were there before me.

“Day was breaking when I arrived at the beach. The mountainous waves were charging up the shore and sending the spray far inland, with a fury which no one can describe. Peering seaward, through the swirl and storm, we dimly traced the outlines of a ship that had struck on the bar and was pounded by the surges that raced over her deck. As the light increased, we saw that she was crowded with people, many of whom begged us by signs to help them.

“How glad we should have been to do so! It was before the wreck gun was used. Again and again we tried to start a boat, but were hurled back like a ball in the hands of a boy. As is often the case at such times, a tremendous current swept along the shore with the speed of a racehorse. Once we were carried two hundred yards in the space of a few seconds, as it seemed, and then capsized and flung high up the beach. It was beyond human power to do anything except to stand idly by and watch the woeful sight.

“Just beyond the stranded vessel I saw a schooner, her sails blown away, speeding down the coast like a locomotive. She was carried by the resistless current and struck the bar only a little way below where we stood. She appeared to crumble like a house of cards and, of the four or five men who composed the crew, not one escaped.

“Hardly an hour later, a third vessel, farther out than the second, shot into view and out again as she too raced southward. She struck two miles below, without any one being able to raise a hand to help those on board. I am sure that all or nearly all on the three vessels would have been saved, had we possessed the means now at command.

“It was the *John Minturn* that was pounding on the bar off Squan Beach. About the middle of the forenoon it stopped snowing and the weather turned intensely cold. The men, women, and children could be plainly seen, and we continually signaled to each other. I specially noticed a mother at the bow with a babe in her arms. She seemed to be kneeling in prayer, as were many of those around her. All had seen long before that the hundreds on the beach could give them no help. We made several attempts to launch a boat, but we might as well have tried to row up the side of a mountain.

“Late in the afternoon the wreck began breaking up. More than thirty bodies came ashore. Many of them had been frozen stiff for hours. It was a pitiable sight, when nearly all of these were washed up the beach and left in a sitting posture. Some of my neighbors thought they were alive and spoke to them. When I saw the mother sitting on the sand with her babe clasped to her breast, I ran to her with encouraging words. Laying my hand on

her shoulder, I found that she and her little one had been frozen to death long before. The exposure would have been fatal to all, even had they not been overwhelmed by the sea."

Among those who were impressed by the dreadful loss of life every year on the New Jersey coast was Dr. Wil-



WILLIAM A. NEWELL

liam A. Newell, a young physician, who lived in Monmouth county, and who afterward became governor of the State. He witnessed several wrecks and saw how easily many lives could have been saved with proper appliances. He knew that the first step in that direction had been taken by Massachusetts, as long ago as 1786, when she organized the

Humane Society. A number of huts were put up on the Massachusetts coast, and, in 1807, the first boat station was built at Cohasset. The society had to depend wholly upon volunteer crews, which did such good service that after a time they were given aid by the State and the general government. In 1847 Congress appropriated \$5000 toward providing lighthouses on the Atlantic coast, and for the help of shipwrecked mariners. The money was never used for that purpose and was turned over to the Massachusetts Society at Cape Cod.

Dr. Newell served in Congress from 1848 to 1851. He secured, during his first year as a member of that body, an appropriation of \$10,000 for "the protection of life and property from shipwreck on the coast between Sandy Hook and Little Egg Harbor." What stronger proof could be asked of the practical humanity of this step

than quickly followed in the case of the *Ayrshire*? She was wrecked on Squan Beach, in January, 1850, and by means of the life car, 201 passengers were safely landed. The only man drowned was one who refused to enter the life car and tried to swim through the surf.

Congress increased the appropriation, and twenty-two stations were placed on the coasts of Long Island and New Jersey. No braver men ever lived than these life-savers, but Congress, while appropriating hundreds of thousands of dollars annually for different purposes, felt that the country was too poor to pay day wages to these heroes. Although they saved hundreds of lives and scores of vessels at imminent risk to themselves, they received no compensation. Now and then a life-saver was drowned while on duty, and his widow and children had to depend upon the charity of their neighbors; or live as best they could.

Gradually, however, Congress came to a sense of its duty. Local superintendents were appointed in 1854, a keeper was put at each station, to whom were given crews, and all received scant wages. Then the chief of the Revenue Marine Bureau of the Treasury Department took charge of the life-saving stations, and by years of hard work the present admirable service was brought into operation.

To-day the ocean and lake coasts of the United States are picketed by an army of life-savers. Every night during the winter, while we are asleep, these ten thousand miles are traversed by keen-eyed men, on the alert for the first sign of needed help. Each patrolman carries a lantern and a supply of "Coston Signals." The more violent the tempest, the greater is the need for his watchfulness, which is never relaxed. If he catches sight

of a ship in peril, he burns the Coston signal. Those on the vessel instantly read its meaning: "Keep good heart; we will relieve you."

The patrolman makes all haste to the station, which may be a mile or more away, and reports that a ship is in extremity. If the surfboat is required, the carriage supporting it is run out of the building



and the crew join in dragging it to the spot where it is needed. It is estimated that



a strong man can draw a hun-

dred and fifty pounds over a level turnpike, but, in the absence of horses, he has to drag a hundred and eighty

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LIFE-SAVING STATION AND LIFEBOAT

pounds as a life-saver, through the heavy sand and in the teeth of the howling gale.

Then with all possible haste the lifeboat is launched. The keeper, standing at the steering oar, guides the craft through the roaring breakers. The surfmen keep their eyes on him, obeying every signal, and bend to their oars, with a coolness and courage that cannot be surpassed. Sometimes the surf will balance the boat on its stern, with its bow pointing straight upward; or the boat may be capsized in the breakers. Little do the surfmen care; for their cork life belts protect them from drowning. Struggling to the beach, they secure and right their boat and try again and again to reach the wreck. Arrived there, they must display great judgment and skill to prevent the lifeboat from being smashed against the hull, which may be breaking up. The surfmen must dodge the falling spars and wreckage, and take off the passengers and crew, who are likely to be in a panic and who would sink the boat by overcrowding, unless they were held in check.

If the patrolman reports that the surfboat cannot be used, the mortar boat is dragged to the spot. The gun is loaded, the shot line box is properly placed, the hauling lines and hawser are fixed for running, the breeches buoy is attached, the tackles are prepared for hauling, and a trench is dug, so that the sand anchor will hold. Each man has his appointed task and there is no confusion, as all toil in the shrieking tempest by the glow of the beach lantern.

Now the gun is fired. There is a rattling whirr, and the elongated shot, with the thin line trailing after it, curves upward in the gale and drops into the sea beyond the stranded vessel. This causes the line to fall across some

spar or object, where it is seized by the waiting crew. In the same instant they shout at the top of their voices, and the favoring hurricane carries the sound to the listening ears on the beach. The life-savers next fasten the endless line or "whip," the tail block, and tally board to the shot line, which those on the wreck rapidly haul aboard. There the end of the tail block is made fast, as directed by the words painted on it (these directions may be in several languages), and a signal of what has been done is made to those on the beach.

By hauling on one part of the whip, the surfmen send out, fastened to the other part, the hawser and second tally board. Upon this are painted instructions to the sailors as to how and where the end of the hawser should be secured on the wreck. The surfmen haul upon the tackles, which connect the sand anchor and the shore end of the hawser, until it is drawn taut. As will be noted, the wreck and shore are now connected by a strong rope. The bridge has been built over which the endangered ones are to cross.

There are two methods of bringing the shipwrecked ones to land. The first is the breeches buoy. This is made of strong canvas, with two openings through which the legs are thrust. The canvas wraps about the hips, and is secured to the circular buoy which passes around the body under the arms. Thus the man to be rescued takes a standing position. He is brought to shore by the surfmen who pull upon the guiding line, tied to the block which runs over the hawser, above the head of the person in the buoy. In the picture on p. 205 the man with the breeches buoy is rescuing a woman.



BREECHES BUOY

This method does not serve so well for invalids, women, or children, nor when haste is necessary in bringing a large number ashore. For these the life car is the saving agent. It is a covered boat of sheet iron, and when closed ready for the passage, is air tight. The inmates would smother if kept there long, but they are never shut in long enough for that. The life car is drawn ashore by the same means as the breeches buoy, though it is sometimes permitted to float on the waves. It will carry six adults, and has brought in nine large children at a time. It has also been used in saving specie.

The official records show that since Superintendent Kimball organized the bureau in 1871, the life-savers have worked upon about 18,000 wrecks, in which 125,000 people and \$350,000,000 worth of property were imperiled. Two thirds of the property and fourteen out of every fifteen persons were saved. In addition, these brave men have rescued hundreds of flood victims, would-be suicides, lunatics, reckless bathers, skaters, children who have fallen from docks, persons who have fallen into sewers, or have been caught upon breakwaters, lost in blizzards, stranded in automobiles, or endangered by runaway horses.

During the ten years ending with 1907, about twenty gold medals and half that number of silver medals were awarded to rescuers of drowning persons in New Jersey waters, a few of the rescues being made by men unconnected with the life-saving service. In the same period, vessels were stranded at forty-four different places on the coast of the State. The varied nature of the work of these noble life-savers is shown by their discovery and extinguishment of a burning dwelling, their picking up of an immense

fishing net drifting a mile off shore, their caring for suffering wanderers in storms, and their taking of officers out to their vessels, when the weather was too tempestuous for it to be done by the vessels' own crews.

District superintendents are paid salaries ranging from \$1900 to \$2200 yearly. The keepers of life-saving stations receive only \$1000 per annum, and each is entitled to a ration a day, or he can commute therefor at the rate of 30 cents per ration.

The only relief for disabled keepers and surfmen, who are injured in the line of duty, is a continuation of pay during disability for a period not exceeding a year. If the case is exceptional and is approved by the Secretary of the Treasury, this pay may be continued for two years. Efforts have been made, thus far without success, to provide pensions on retirement from service, similar to those granted in the army and navy. The present law only gives the widow and minor children, or dependent mother, of a keeper or surfman, who dies in the line of duty, a sum equal to two years' wages of the deceased

CHAPTER XIX

PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION

WE have learned of the steps taken by New Jersey during the colonial period, in the interests of common school education. Shortly after the close of the Revolution these steps became more definite. A number of private schools and academies came into existence, and, as a rule, they were well supported. In 1816 the legislature set aside the sum of \$15,000 to be invested in a permanent educational fund. In the following two years, this sum was increased to \$113,238.78. A law in 1824 added a tenth of the State tax to the school fund. Previous to this each township was authorized to raise money by taxation to pay for the education of the children of poor parents. This authority was increased in 1828, so as to include the building and repair of schoolhouses. A year later \$20,000 was apportioned among the different counties, and provision was made for the election of a committee in each township, with the authority to divide it into districts, to examine and license teachers, and to report each year to the governor. Three trustees were to be chosen, who were to decide for how many months the school should be kept open, to provide schoolhouses, and to report the census of the school children in the district, as a basis for the distribution of the State money.

In 1837, just before the distressing "hard times" which afflicted the country at large, as it has never been afflicted

before or since, the United States was believed to be so prosperous that the surplus revenue in the national Treasury was distributed *pro rata* among the various States. The sum paid to New Jersey was \$764,670.61. In some of the States the gift was added to the school fund. Governor Dickerson recommended the same course in this State, but his advice was not followed. Instead, the fund was divided among the counties in proportion to the State tax paid by them. A proof of the growing interest in common schools was given in 1838, when the legislature increased the annual appropriation to \$30,000. The new constitution of 1844 contained a provision that the school fund should never under any pretext be diverted from its legitimate object. Essex and Passaic counties each secured a school superintendent, and in 1846 this provision was made general.

In 1846 every township was required to raise the same amount that was contributed by the State, and township superintendents were authorized. The State appropriation was increased in 1851 to \$40,000. In 1854 the legislature appropriated \$100 annually for each teachers' institute held during the year.

A self-evident fact had long impressed all thoughtful people: this was the need of a training school for teachers. Many of those intrusted with the instruction of children had slight fitness for the work. The best among them required suggestion, direction, and help. The year 1855 brought an epoch in the educational history of the State, when the first State Normal School was opened in Trenton. The principal was Professor William F. Phelps, who came from the Experimental School at Albany, New

York. He was the man of all others best equipped for the important duty. He was energetic, aggressive, and progressive, and had a magnetic personality that filled the students with an ardor for their work. The impetus which



STATE NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS, TRENTON

Professor Phelps gave to common school education in New Jersey was far-reaching and is manifest to-day throughout the State.

A great advance was made in 1867, when the entire school system was revised and placed on a sound basis. This admirable law provided for the continual maintenance of the Normal and the Model School; for the examination and licensing of teachers; for raising the State educational fund to the right amount; for uniting State and local contributions; and for defining the functions of district and township trustees, of the city boards of education, of the county superintendents, of the State superintendent, and of the State Board of Education.

Free scholarships in the State College of agriculture and the mechanic arts were established by the legislature in 1890, and appropriations for their maintenance by the State were provided for at the same time. Reference to this college will be made hereafter.

In 1881 the legislature passed an act which encouraged the establishment of schools for industrial education and provided for the appropriation each year to any district, which maintained such a school, of a sum of money equal to that raised in the district, not exceeding \$5000. At present the maximum appropriation is \$7500. In 1888 the act which stimulated the introduction of manual training into the public schools was passed. In accordance with this act, each school district, which maintains this kind of instruction, receives from the State annually an amount equal to that which it raises, but not more than \$5000. As a result of these wise provisions several industrial schools have been established and courses in manual training are found in the schools generally throughout the State.

In New Jersey women can vote at school meetings for all purposes except the choice of members of the board of education, and they are eligible to membership in such boards. The law requires that appropriate exercises shall be held in all public schools on Arbor Day, set apart for the planting of trees, and on the school day before each of the following: Decoration Day, when the graves of the patriot dead are decorated, Thanksgiving Day, the Fourth of July, and Washington's Birthday.¹ As yet New Jersey has not adopted any State flower.

¹ New Jersey has eleven legal holidays: New Year's, Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday, Good Friday, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Anniversary of the Discovery of America, Election Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas.

In 1896 a law was enacted which provides for a Retirement Fund, supported by contributions from the salaries of teachers, by means of which annuities are paid to teachers retired on account of age or disability. In 1905 an act was passed which provides for the payment of pensions by the school districts to teachers retired after a service of thirty-five or more years in the State, and twenty or more years in the district which grants the pension. These annuities and pensions amount in the former case to six tenths and in the latter to one half the average annual salary paid during the last five years of service.

The general school act of 1871 first made our public schools free. The township school tax gave place to a compulsory tax of 2 mills per dollar on ratables, and the Riparian Commissioners were required to pay over to the trustees of the School Fund all moneys received from the sale or rental of land under water belonging to the State. The amount at present is about \$5,000,000, which yields \$200,000 a year for the support of free schools.

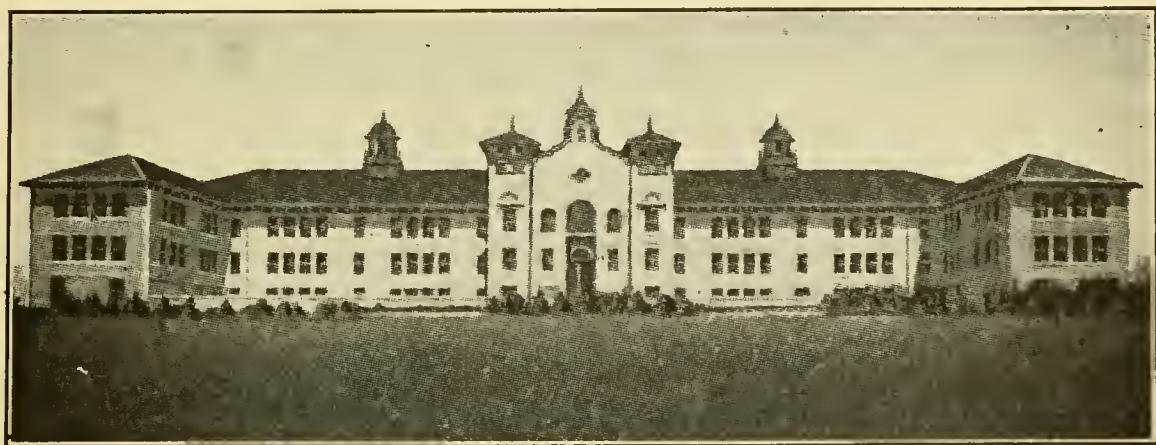
In 1894 all school districts in the State, except cities and boroughs, were abolished; the small and weak neighborhood districts were united, and text-books were furnished free to the pupils. In 1900 the State was given supervision of schoolhouse plans, thus insuring the construction of sanitary buildings. In 1901 the State school tax was changed from \$5.00 per pupil of school age to $2\frac{3}{4}$ mills per dollar of ratables. The amount thus insured for the year ending June 30, 1909, was \$4,318,077.70.

The year 1903 is most notable in the history of school legislation, because in that year the legislature made a complete revision and codification of the school law.

Among many important changes it gave city school districts the power to change the method of selecting boards of education, and made all boards corporations, independent largely of local municipal government. It created "boards of school estimate" in cities and authorized them to fix the amount of money to be raised for the maintenance of the schools.

In 1904 the State Board of Education established a system of High School inspection. In 1906 the legislature ordained that most of the moneys received from the tax on first-class railroad property should be devoted to the support of the public schools.

The steady advance made by New Jersey in providing the means for training teachers was shown in 1906, when



STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, UPPER MONTCLAIR

the legislature appropriated \$275,000 for the building and equipping of a new State Normal School, which was opened in Upper Montclair in September, 1908.

In 1909 the security of teachers in their employment was established by a law which requires that after three consecutive years of service in the same district, their term of service shall be during good behavior and efficiency.

The school law provides for the compulsory attendance of children at school and for the appointment of officers to enforce it, for the transportation of pupils whose residences are remote from the schools which they are required to attend, and for the protection of the health of children by requiring medical inspection. It enables every boy and girl in the State to secure a high school education by requiring school districts to pay the tuition of their pupils, or a part of it, in a high school of another district, if they have no high schools of their own.

The total number of pupils in the public schools in 1910 was 424,534, with 11,235 teachers and an average attendance of 309,661 pupils. It was decided in 1912 to establish a new normal school.

A radical change in the school law went into effect in 1911. The office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction was abolished and the terms of all the members of the State Board of Education closed June 30, 1911. A new board consisting of eight members was appointed by the Governor, to whom was assigned the duty of nominating a Commissioner of Education. His term of five years, with an annual salary of \$10,000, began June 30, 1911. The Commissioner in turn appointed four assistants, one to represent himself, while to the others was respectively assigned charge of the secondary, the elementary, and the industrial schools.

Calvin N. Kendall of Indianapolis, a highly successful educator of wide experience, was appointed as the first Commissioner of Education and promptly entered upon the discharge of his duties.

CHAPTER XX

COLLEGES AND LIBRARIES

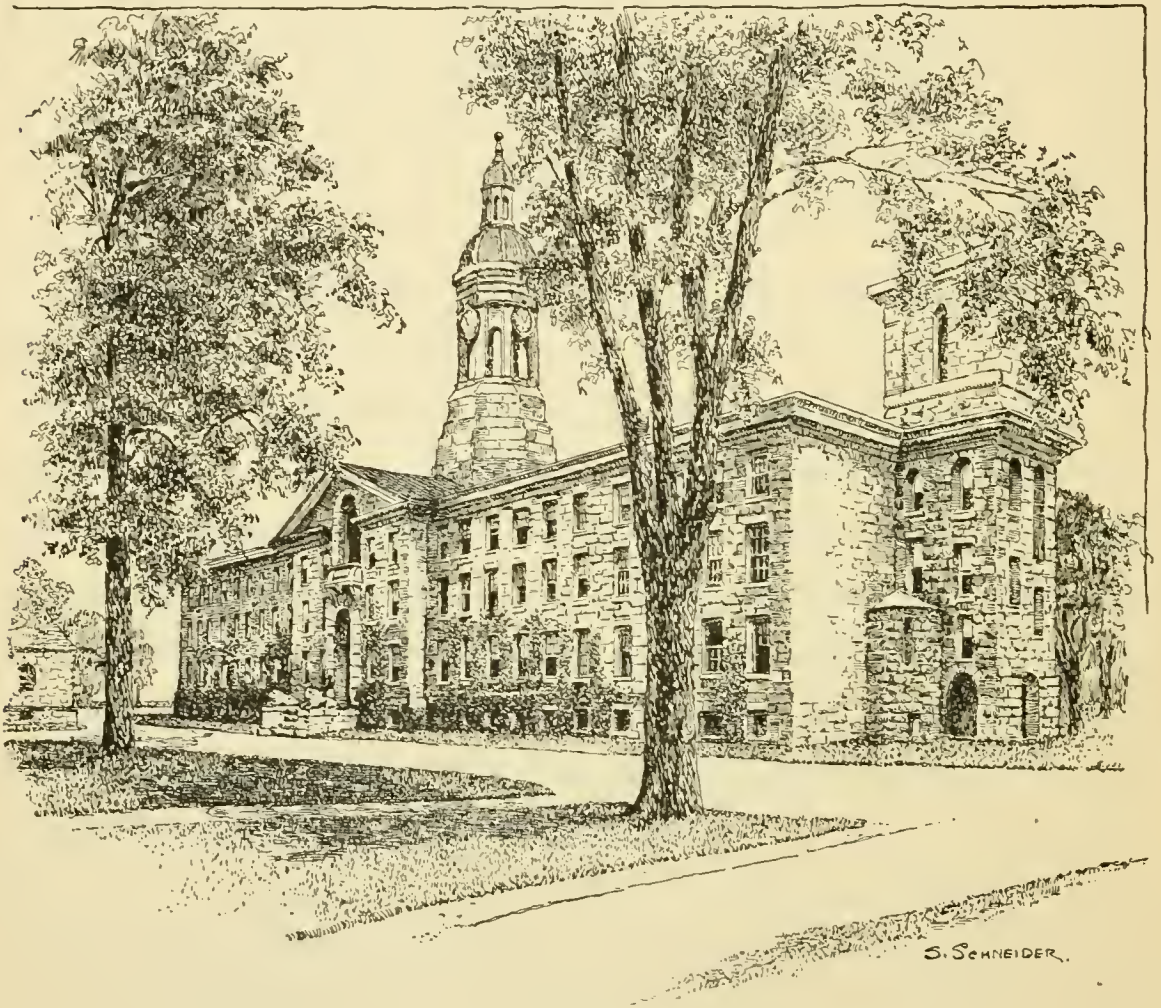
THE opening years of the eighteenth century saw only three institutions of higher learning in the American colonies: Harvard (1636) in Massachusetts, the College of William and Mary (1693) in Virginia, and Yale (1701) in Connecticut.

In 1746 the Synod of New York obtained a charter for the establishment of a college in the middle colonies, which was intended to rank with her elder sisters. In 1747 Jonathan Belcher, the newly appointed governor of New Jersey, arrived in the colony and showed a deep interest in the project. The original charter not being wholly satisfactory, Governor Belcher granted a second, which passed the seal of the province, September 14, 1748. It was renewed and confirmed after the Revolution by the State legislature.

The first term of the infant college, of which Reverend Jonathan Dickinson had been made president, was opened in the house of that gentleman in Elizabethtown, in April, 1747. President Dickinson died six months later and was succeeded by Reverend Aaron Burr. At the same time the college was removed to Newark. The credit for the organization of the curriculum, the discipline, and the ceremonies of the college belong to President Burr.

The first commencement was held in Newark, November 9, 1748, and was a memorable one in the history of the

college. President Burr's inaugural address was a plea for a broad and liberal education as the surest foundation for the commonwealth. The graduating class numbered six. Thus far the college had possessed only temporary quarters, and the trustees now cast about for a permanent home. Princeton was found to be an ideal location, and the removal thither was voted September 27, 1752.



NASSAU HALL, PRINCETON COLLEGE

Ground was broken July 29, 1754, and the corner stone was laid soon after. Governor Belcher had proved so warm a friend of the institution that the trustees wished to name it in his honor, but he declined and asked that it should be called Nassau Hall as expressing "the honor we retain in

this remote part of the globe to the immortal memory of the glorious King William III, who was a branch of the illustrious house of Nassau." The governor's request was complied with and the name Nassau Hall was adopted.

On completion of the building, in the autumn of 1756, the students removed thither from Newark. The structure at that time was the largest of its kind in the colonies, and the expense was so great that two agents were sent to Great Britain to solicit funds. They were successful and brought back a liberal sum.

President Burr died in September, 1757, and was succeeded by the Reverend Jonathan Edwards of Stockbridge, Massachusetts. Of him a distinguished authority said: "He ranks with the brightest luminaries of the Christian church, not excluding any country or age since the apostolic." He was a master of dogmatic theology and the most powerful defender that Calvinism ever had.

President Edwards arrived in Princeton, February 16, 1758, and died a few weeks later of smallpox. Reverend Samuel Davis succeeded to the presidency, and under him and those who followed, the college steadily grew and prospered. The most distinguished head of Princeton during its early years was John Witherspoon, D.D., LL.D., of Paisley, Scotland, who was inaugurated in the summer of 1768 and presided with remarkable success until his death in 1794.

The shadow of the coming Revolution was lengthening over the land when this great Scotch divine and scholar came to Princeton. He was ardently patriotic and powerfully influenced the Scotch and Scotch-Irish to support the cause of American independence. He was a member of

the Continental Congress from 1776 to 1779, and from 1780 to 1783, and a signer of the Articles of Confederation and the Declaration of Independence.

Princeton College suffered severely from the Revolution. The town was desolated by the presence first of one army and then of the other. Nassau Hall was wrecked, the library scattered and destroyed, and the valuable philosophical apparatus ruined. Yet during those "days that tried men's souls," only one commencement was missed — that of 1777. The seven graduates received their degrees a few months late, and were credited to that year.

Among the students who sat under the instruction of President Witherspoon were James Madison, Aaron Burr, Henry Lee, Morgan Lewis, and Philip Freneau. The last named was born in New York in 1752, and entered the sophomore class at Princeton at the age of sixteen. He was one of the founders of the American Whig Society, and while still a young man won a wide reputation for literary and especially poetic ability. He was an ardent patriot and wrote many poems and pamphlets that glowed with love for his country. He was also a bitter controversialist, and while employed in the office of Secretary of State Jefferson, wrote such sharp attacks upon Hamilton, in the *National Gazette*, that the latter retaliated not only upon Freneau, but upon Jefferson as the power behind the throne.

Several editions of Freneau's poems have been published. Some of them show marked skill, though he cannot be ranked as a poet of the first order. After withdrawing from the stormy field of politics, he settled at Mt. Pleasant, near Freehold. While returning home from the town one

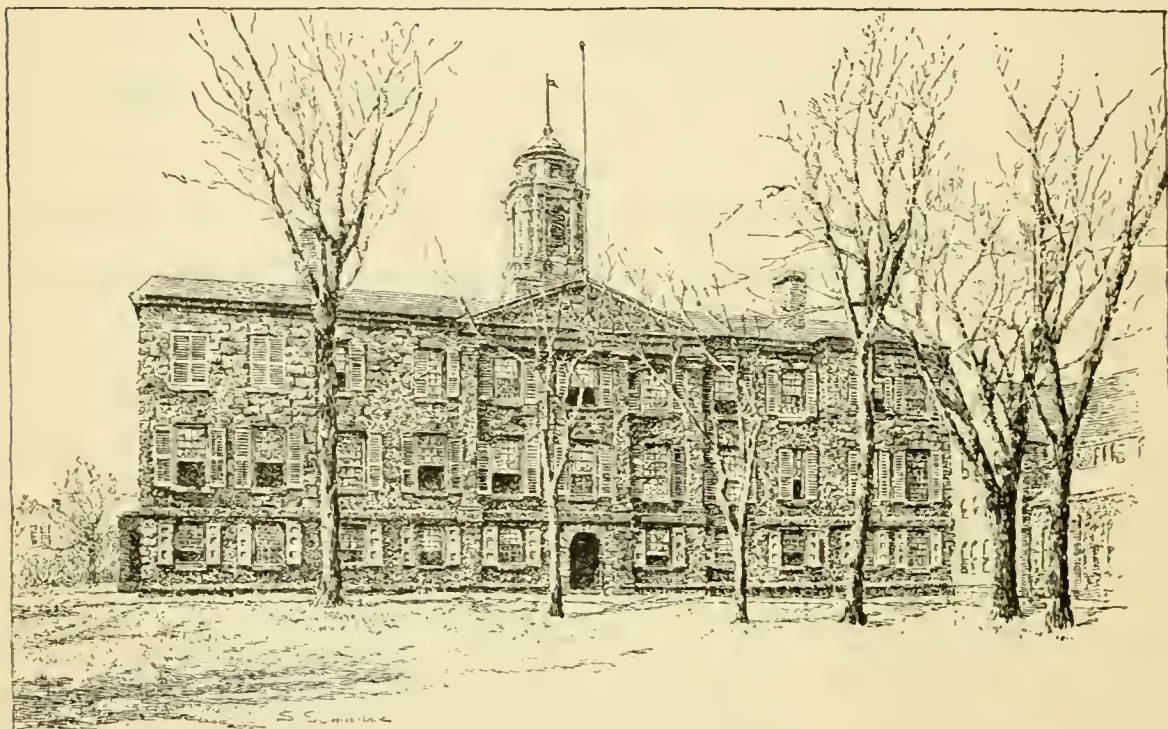
night in December, 1832, he was caught in a blizzard which caused his death.

In October, 1896, Princeton College celebrated the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the signing of the first charter of the College of New Jersey, and assumed the title of Princeton University with the title of the corporation as now constituted, "The Trustees of Princeton University." It is one of the best-equipped institutions of its kind in the world, and numbers among its alumni some of the greatest statesmen, scholars, scientists, and thinkers of the age.

The second college town in New Jersey is New Brunswick, now a flourishing city noted for its manufactures and rubber goods, its foundries and machine shops, and the production of knit work and cigars. At the close of the seventeenth century it was simply a ferry station on the Raritan River. It was first called "Prigmore's Swamp," after the owner of the section. On December 2, 1697, John Inian and his wife were given permission to ferry passengers across the stream, and for eighteen years the place was known simply as "Inian's Ferry" or "The Ferry."

Quite a settlement sprang up in a few years, a number of families removing thither from Albany, New York. Vessels from Perth Amboy and New York made regular trips, and a brisk trade was established. Upon the accession of the House of Brunswick to the British throne in 1714, the loyal Dutch inhabitants named the village New Brunswick. It suffered a good deal during the Revolution, the British army occupying it during the winter of 1776-1777. The town was incorporated in 1784.

Queen's College was founded November 10, 1766, under a royal charter granted by George III. A second charter, slightly amending the first, was given by Governor William Franklin, March 20, 1770, for "the education of youth in the learned languages, liberal and useful arts and sciences, and especially in divinity." The college has had three different sites in New Brunswick. The charter requires the



RUTGERS COLLEGE

president to be a communicant of the (Dutch) Reformed Church in America, but no sectarian religious instruction is given, and its students are of various denominations.

The college has suffered at times from financial stress, and during the Revolution activities were removed to neighboring villages. In 1808 the present campus was acquired, and the erection of a college hall begun. In 1825 it received a generous gift from Colonel Henry Rutgers of New York, and its name was changed in his honor.

Since then it has steadily prospered. In 1863 a scientific department was organized under the name of Rutgers Scientific School.

In April, 1864, the legislature of New Jersey declared the department known as "Rutgers Scientific School to be the State College for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts." With such colleges the United States in March, 1887, associated a department known as the "Agricultural Experiment Station." The congressional act authorizes the apportionment of \$15,000 annually for the support of agricultural experiment stations in connection with the colleges which were established in the several States, "for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts," by the act of Congress, July 2, 1862. In March, 1906, Congress authorized an appropriation of \$5000 for the year ending July 1, following with a yearly increase thereafter of \$2000 up to a maximum of \$15,000 per year. The legislature designated the trustees of Rutgers College as the party to whom the appropriations named should be made.

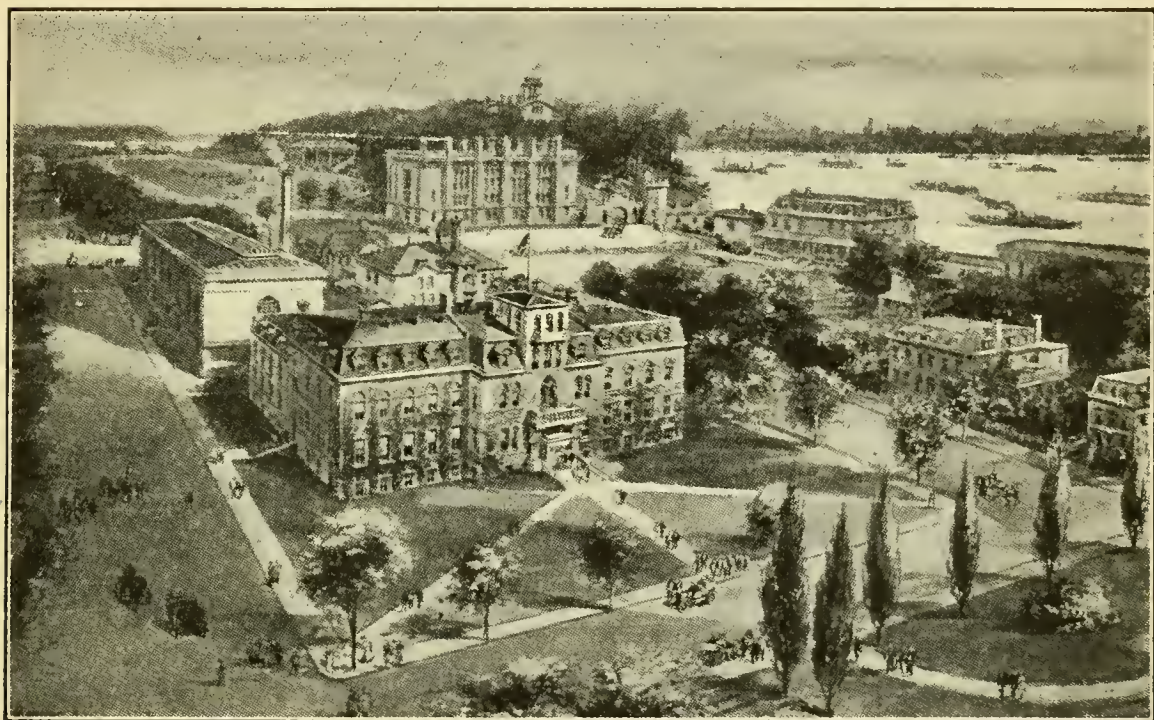
Thus a course of training in scientific agriculture was established at Rutgers with the most valuable results to the State. Bulletins are furnished free to the farmers. A large farm, connected with the agricultural college, is devoted to experiments upon cattle and with crops and fertilizers. Scholarships in the State College were founded in 1890, the students of which are chosen by competitive examination. The knowledge with which tillers of the soil have been equipped by this admirable institution has added and continues to add unmeasured wealth to farms and farming.

John Stevens, who, in 1784, bought the land on which Hoboken is situated, possessed inventive talents of the highest type. In 1798 he built a steamboat which plied the Hudson. He invented the tubular boiler in 1803, and was the first to use it in constructing a locomotive, in 1826. He invented the first steam ferryboat, which began its trips between New York and Hoboken in 1811. In 1808 he designed the steamboat *Phoenix*, which was built by his son Robert and which was the first vessel propelled by steam to navigate the ocean. He published a treatise in 1812, on "The Superior Advantages of Railway and Steam Carriages over Canal Navigation."

Two of his sons, Edwin A. and Robert L. Stevens, were joint inventors of many improvements in railway tracks and rolling stock. Robert built the first iron-clad vessel ever constructed. Edwin, by will, April 15, 1867, bequeathed a block of ground in the city of Hoboken, worth \$150,000, for the erection of buildings thereon "suitable for the uses of an institution of learning," and also \$500,000 as an endowment fund for its support.

A charter for the institution was obtained in 1870, and Professor Henry Morton was chosen president of the "Stevens Institute of Technology." He was a brilliant scholar, who had published a translation of the hieroglyphic text of the Rosetta Stone, conducted an expedition to study a total solar eclipse in Iowa, and at the time of his appointment to Stevens Institute was professor of chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania. His administration was highly successful. His enthusiasm in his work was shown by his gifts of \$80,000 to the endowment fund of the Institute.

In 1875 a mechanical laboratory was established and placed in charge of the eminent Professor Robert H. Thurston. President Morton died in 1902, and was succeeded by Professor A. C. Humphreys, who had been graduated from the Institute in 1881. Professor Thurston died in 1903.



STEVENS INSTITUTE, HOBOKEN

Stevens Institute of Technology is essentially a school of mechanical engineering alone, and it gives but a single course of study, which requires four years for completion. It grants the degree of mechanical engineer to those who finish the course and has bestowed honorary degrees of doctor of philosophy and of science. Its instruction is thorough, and its graduates (now numbering about fifteen hundred) have every advantage that a perfectly equipped institution of that nature can impart.

Since public libraries have a high educational value, it

is interesting to know that the oldest one in the State is that of Princeton University, which was founded in 1748. It contains also the greatest number of volumes, 262,756. The other libraries established during the eighteenth century are Burlington, 1757; Cleosophic Society, Princeton,



THE PUBLIC LIBRARY, NEWARK

1765; Rutgers College, 1766; and the New Jersey State Library, Trenton, 1796. The public library at Newark, established in 1888, and that at Jersey City, established in 1889, are among the finest in the State. The present number of libraries in the State is 150, with a total of more than a million and a half volumes.

APPENDIX

I. GEOGRAPHY AND INDUSTRIES

THE land and water area of New Jersey is 8224 square miles. The State is inclosed on every side by water, excepting 48 miles on the northern boundary. In the northwest the country is hilly, and in the southeast low and sandy. The "Pines" include most of Ocean, Atlantic, the eastern part of Cumberland, and the northern part of Cape May counties, besides parts of Burlington, Camden, Gloucester, and Salem. Many of the swamps produce valuable crops of cranberries, the total being one half the crop raised in the United States. Nearly one half of the State is un-cleared forest land.

Because of the ocean the climate along the coast is less severe than in the interior. The shore and mountains are favorite summer resorts, and attract visitors from every part of the country. The fire clays and potters' clay in Middlesex and Mercer counties have made the State the second in the manufacture of pottery ware, of so fine a quality that large quantities are exported. In some portions the soil is very fertile, and when sandy, it can be made highly productive by means of marl and fertilizers. Pine and cedar are found in the south, and oak, maple, chestnut, beech, hickory, and other varieties of trees abound in the north. Large crops of corn, wheat, rye, and buckwheat are raised.

New Jersey has long been famous for its luscious fruits and excellent vegetables, which find a ready market in New York and Philadelphia, and it is often called "The Garden

State." In the northwest are iron ore, gneiss, marble, limestone, and sandstone. Sussex county contains rich zinc mines. Until a comparatively recent date this mineral was found nowhere else in the United States. In Cumberland county the quality of the sand has rendered glass-making an important industry.



HUDSON TUNNEL

Manufacturing, agriculture, mining, and fishing, in the order named, are the chief occupations of the people. The principal manufactures are silk goods (in which the State leads all others), foundry products, refined petroleum, copper, iron and steel, pottery, chemicals, leather, malt liquors, rubber, cotton and woolen goods, and many minor articles.

The situation of New Jersey makes it one of the leading highways of the nation. Most of the trade between t

city of New York and the coal, grain, and cotton regions of the west and southwest, of necessity crosses the State. New Jersey now has about twenty-five hundred miles of railway. In addition, there are two important water routes, previously described, the Delaware and Raritan Canal, and the Morris Canal. The railway and water facilities are continually increasing. A direct ship canal across the State will probably be constructed soon, and will shorten the water distance by nearly two thirds. Tunnels have been dug under the Hudson River, which connect the city of New York, Jersey City, and Hoboken. Trains also pass beneath the Hudson to New Jersey from the great terminal station of the Pennsylvania Railroad in New York.

II. SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

Every State has a constitution of its own, and a law-making body named the legislature. As in the national constitution, provision is made for dividing the powers of government into three departments: *legislative, executive, judiciary*. The legislative power is vested in a senate and a general assembly, the executive power in a governor, and the judiciary power in the various courts.



There are two parts or branches of the legislature, called the senate and assembly. Every State is divided into counties, or parishes, or districts. A certain division has the right to choose a man by vote to be a member of the senate. In some States a county forms a senatorial district, while in other States a different plan is followed. In New Jersey the former plan prevails.

We have twenty-one counties and, therefore, the same number of State senators.

We must remember that the number of senators in a State does not depend upon the population of the several counties or districts which elect them to office. In New Jersey one of the counties has ten times as many people as each of certain other counties, but it would make no difference if it had a hundred times as many. The most populous county can never, under the present constitution, have more than one member in the State senate. If the number of senators were based on the population, the smaller counties would be at the mercy of the larger ones. In principle, the national government serves as a model for the State governments.

Still it is right that population shall have due weight. Consequently the law allows each county to base the number of its members in the assembly, or lower branch of the legislature, upon its population. The people, therefore, are fully represented in the assembly, but the members of that branch are held in check by the equal representation in the senate. The chief officer elected by the people in each State is the governor. The duties of the governor of New Jersey are mentioned in the constitution. (See pp. 245-248.)

Let us now see how each State makes its laws. When a member of the legislature wishes a certain bill passed, he writes out its terms and offers it in the branch to which he belongs. The name or title of the bill is read in a loud voice by a clerk, so that every member may know what it is. The bill is then placed in the hands of a committee, by whom it is closely examined. If the committee offers it again, every word of the bill is read aloud. All the members have the right to ask for such changes as they

think proper. It is necessary that a majority, that is, more than one half, shall vote for such changes in order to make them a part of the bill. It is then read a third time, and if a majority of the members vote for it, the presiding officer signs the bill, which shows that it has passed that branch of the legislature.

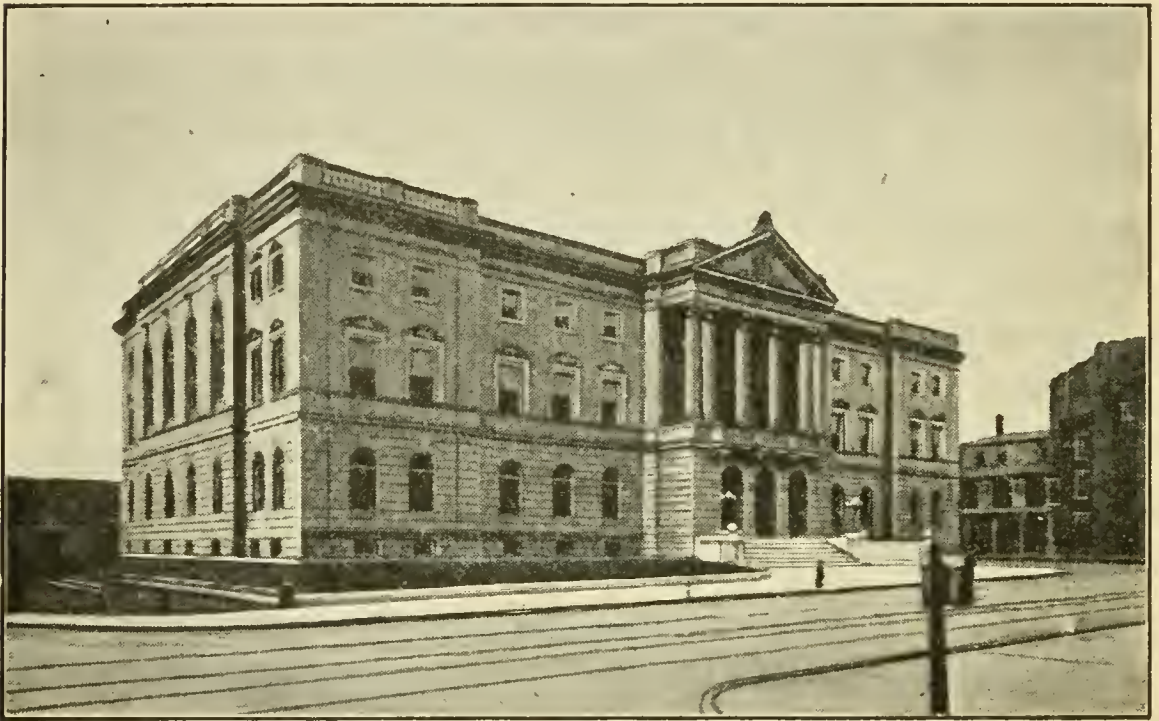
The bill is next sent to the other branch, where the same course is followed. If the second branch makes further changes or amendments in the bill, it is returned to the first branch, which accepts or rejects the changes as it thinks best. Having passed both branches, the bill is next sent to the governor. If he believes the measure a proper one, he signs it and it becomes the law of the State. If, however, the governor does not favor the measure, he sends it back to the branch of the legislature where it was first offered, giving his reasons in writing for doing so. This action on the part of the governor is called *vetoing a bill*. In most of the States it takes the votes of two thirds of the members to pass a measure over the governor's veto. In New Jersey a majority vote is sufficient to do so.

It is possible that a bill contains terms which are contrary to the State or the national constitution. If so, the fact is generally discovered by some member of the legislature or by the governor, when it is placed before him. If there is doubt, it is referred to the attorney-general, and his opinion is accepted as to the constitutionality of the measure. If any question afterward arises, it is settled by the supreme court.

The third branch of the State government is the judiciary, which is composed of certain courts. The following explanation of their scope is given :—

Justice's Court.—The lowest court, with common law and criminal jurisdiction, is that of justice of the peace.

This may be presided over by one, two, or three justices. Suits involving no more than \$200 may be tried in this court, which has civil power for the recovery of penalties. As a criminal court, a justice of the peace is a high constable, and can place felons and inferior criminals under bail to await action of the grand jury; he can commit tramps, convict and imprison disorderly persons, and has



COURTHOUSE, TRENTON

power concerning acts of immorality and vice, cruelty to children, and forcible entry and detainer. Should either party to a suit feel aggrieved, he may appeal to the court of quarter sessions, or, if that court has no jurisdiction, he can carry his case to the supreme or circuit court.

Police Court. — This court is composed of a police justice, or a justice of the peace appointed by him. He tries cases of violation of city ordinances for the recovery of a fine or penalty. His criminal jurisdiction in the city

for which he is appointed is the same as that of a justice of the peace. Appeal from his court is to the court of common pleas, or quarter sessions, or to the supreme or circuit court.

District Court. — The presiding officer of this court may be the judge of any other district court, or any judge of the court of common pleas. The county in which the court is held is the limit of its jurisdiction. It has authority in all suits of a civil nature, where the amount involved does not exceed \$500 exclusive of costs, as well as over disputes between landlords and tenants, and replevin and attachment cases. Appeals are to the supreme court.

Court of Quarter Sessions. — This court, as one of common law jurisdiction, can hear only appeals from the justice's courts and the police courts. As a criminal court, it has jurisdiction over all offenses of an indictable nature, within the county, except indictments for treason and murder. Appeal is to the supreme court.

Court of Common Pleas. — This court holds three stated terms each year, and special terms when so directed by the supreme court. The presiding officer is a judge appointed to that office, and the justice of the supreme court, holding the circuit court within the county, is ex-officio judge of this court. It has original jurisdiction in all personal actions, not involving the freehold; it can change on petition the name of any town or village in the county, or of any person at his request, and has sole jurisdiction in cases relating to insolvency, roads, and wrecks; it can attach property of absent or absconding debtors; it hears application for exemption from military duty, and decides suits against constables who neglect to execute tax warrants. It grants licenses and can try cases referred to it by the circuit court, and certify the same to the supreme court.

Circuit Court. — In each county the circuit court holds three stated terms annually, and any justice of the supreme court may order in addition a special term. It is presided over by one or more justices of the supreme court, though the presiding judge of the court of common pleas may sit when requested to do so by the supreme court judge holding the circuit of that district. It has concurrent jurisdiction with the supreme court except in criminal cases. It hears contested election cases, petitions for the change of names of persons or newspapers, cases concerning legacies, the adoption of children, the enforcement of mechanics' lien claims, and it has authority to try supreme court issues. Appeals from this court may be taken to the court of errors and appeals.

Supreme Court of Judicature. — The chief justice and eight associate justices compose this court, and it may be held by any one of the nine justices. It meets in Trenton, on the third Tuesday in February, and the first Tuesdays respectively of June and November. Special terms may be ordered by the chief justice, or any two associate justices. The supreme court has jurisdiction over all real, personal, or mixed actions at common law, legacies, removal of trustees in certain cases, the naturalization of aliens, sales of mortgaged premises, suits on sheriffs' bonds, perfection of title deeds when lost or stolen, matters of taxation; and it has power to declare laws and joint resolutions void, when not duly passed and approved.

The supreme court can review the proceedings of other courts, which power cannot be taken from it by the legislature. The only appeal is by writ of error to the court of errors and appeals. The business before the supreme court has grown to so great magnitude that it is divided into the main court (presided over by the chief justice

and two associates); the branch court (presided over by three associate judges); and the sub-branch (presided over by three associate judges).

Court of Errors and Appeals. — This court is composed of the chancellor, the justices of the supreme court, and six specially appointed justices. The chancellor when present presides; in his absence the chief justice acts, and, if both are absent, the senior justice assumes the chair. Being the highest tribunal in the State, there is no appeal from its decisions. The court meets in Trenton on the first Tuesday in March, and the third Tuesdays respectively of June and November. It hears appeals from all the other courts, including cases in the court of chancery and the prerogative court and appeals on writs of error brought from the supreme court.

Court of Chancery. — This is composed of a chancellor and seven vice chancellors. Three terms are held in Trenton, on the first Tuesday in February, and the third Tuesdays respectively of May and October. The vice chancellors sit in Newark, Jersey City, Trenton, Camden, and Paterson to hear motions and to try cases. The chancellor may call special terms when he deems it necessary. The purpose of the court of chancery is to afford such relief as is not given by the common law courts, and appeal is had to the court of errors and appeals.

Surrogate Court. — Each county in the State has a surrogate, whose duties relate mainly to will cases. When assignments for the benefit of creditors are made, he accepts and files the valuation of the estate, the inventory and bond prepared by the assignee; admits wills to probate and grants letters testamentary thereon. Appeals are made to the orphans' court of the county.

Orphans' Court. — This court is held by the judge of

the court of common pleas, the justices of the supreme court being judges ex-officio. The court hears all disputes concerning the existence of wills, inventories, allowance of the accounts of executors, administrators, guardians, or trustees; the idiocy and lunacy of persons who have been or may be in the military, naval, or marine service of the United States; the recovery of legacies and distribution of shares where the will has been proved, the division of estates, etc.

Prerogative Court. — The chancellor is the judge or ordinary of the prerogative court, which holds a session in Trenton at each stated term of the court of chancery, and at such times as the chancellor may appoint. The court has authority to grant the probate of wills, letters of administration, guardianship, and the settlement of disputes relating thereto. It hears appeals from the orphans' court, and its own decisions may be appealed to the court of errors and appeals.

Court for the Trial of Impeachments. — The senate constitutes this court. The assembly alone can impeach the governor, or any officer of the State, for misdemeanor in office, while holding such office, or for two years thereafter. A two-thirds vote of the senate is necessary to convict, and there is no appeal from the verdict. The only punishment provided for conviction is removal from office, or disqualification to hold any office of honor, profit, or trust under the State.

Court of Pardons. — The governor, chancellor, and the six judges of the court of errors and appeals constitute the court of pardons. A majority of the court, of whom the governor must be one, may remit fines and forfeitures, grant pardons after conviction in all cases, except impeachment, and commute sentences of death to imprisonment at

hard labor for life or for a stated number of years. The court meets at such times as the governor may direct. Its judgment is final.

Court of Oyer and Terminer. — This court is made up of any supreme court justice and the judge of the court of common pleas. The former must be present and preside, and he may hold the court alone. In counties having three hundred thousand inhabitants, the judge of the court of common pleas may hold this court. It meets in the respective counties, and has jurisdiction over all crimes and offenses of an indictable nature, and it can fine justices of the peace and coroners for neglect of duties. Appeal from this court is to the supreme court.

Court for the Trial of Juvenile Offenders. — With the beneficent object of reforming rather than punishing young criminals, this court has been organized. The judge of the court of common pleas constitutes the court. The magistrate, before whom any boy or girl under the age of sixteen years is brought, may hold him or her for trial, or parole the offender to await trial on such terms as the magistrate may prescribe, complaint being sent to the court named.

Coroner's Court. — The coroner inquires into the causes of any death in prison, or concerning such death as may be attended by apparently suspicious circumstances. There is no appeal from the verdict of a coroner's jury.

III. CONSTITUTION OF THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY

A CONSTITUTION agreed upon by the delegates of the people of New Jersey, in convention begun at Trenton on the fourteenth day of May, and continued to the twenty-ninth day of June, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-four, ratified by the people at an election held on the thirteenth day of August, A.D. 1844, and amended at a special election held on the seventh day of September, A.D. 1875, and at another special election held on the twenty-eighth day of September, A.D. 1897.

We, the people of the State of New Jersey, grateful to Almighty God for the civil and religious liberty which He hath so long permitted us to enjoy, and looking to Him for a blessing upon our endeavors to secure and transmit the same unimpaired to succeeding generations, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION:

ARTICLE I

RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES

1. All men are by nature free and independent, and have certain natural and unalienable rights, among which are those of enjoying and defending life and liberty; acquiring, possessing and protecting property, and of pursuing and obtaining safety and happiness.

2. All political power is inherent in the people. Government is instituted for the protection, security and benefit of the people, and they have the right at all times to alter or reform the same, whenever the public good may require it.

3. No person shall be deprived of the inestimable privilege of worshipping Almighty God in a manner agreeable to the dictates of his own conscience; nor, under any pretense whatever, to be compelled to attend any place of worship contrary to his faith and judgment; nor shall any person be obliged to pay tithes, taxes or other rates for

building or repairing any church or churches, place or places of worship, or for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately and voluntarily engaged to perform.

4. There shall be no establishment of one religious sect in preference to another; no religious test shall be required as a qualification for any office or public trust; and no person shall be denied the enjoyment of any civil right merely on account of his religious principles.

5. Every person may freely speak, write and publish his sentiments on all subjects, being responsible for the abuse of that right. No law shall be passed to restrain or abridge the liberty of speech or of the press. In all prosecutions or indictments for libel, the truth may be given in evidence to the jury; and if it shall appear to the jury that the matter charged as libelous is true, and was published with good motives and for justifiable ends, the party shall be acquitted; and the jury shall have the right to determine the law and the fact.

6. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrant shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched and the papers and things to be seized.

7. The right of a trial by jury shall remain inviolate; but the legislature may authorize the trial of civil suits, when a matter in dispute does not exceed fifty dollars, by a jury of six men.

8. In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall have the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury; to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of a counsel in his defense.

9. No person shall be held to answer for a criminal offense, unless on the presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases of impeachment, or in cases cognizable by justices of the peace, or arising in the army or navy; or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger.

10. No person shall, after acquittal, be tried for the same offense. All persons shall, before conviction, be bailable by sufficient sureties, except for capital offenses, when the proof is evident or presumption great.

11. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless in case of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

12. The military shall be in strict subordination to the civil power.

13. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, except in a manner prescribed by law.

14. Treason against the State shall consist only in levying war against it, or in adhering to its enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

15. Excessive bail shall not be required, excessive fines shall not be imposed, and cruel and unusual punishments shall not be inflicted.

16. Private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation; but land may be taken for public highways as heretofore, until the legislature shall direct compensation to be made.

17. No person shall be imprisoned for debt in any action, or on any judgment founded upon contract, unless in cases of fraud; nor shall any person be imprisoned for a militia fine in time of peace.

18. The people have the right freely to assemble together to consult for the common good, to make known their opinions to their representatives, and to petition for redress of grievances.

19. No county, city, borough, town, township or village shall hereafter give any money or property, or loan its money or credit, to or in aid of any individual association or corporation, or become security for or be directly or indirectly the owner of any stock or bonds of any association or corporation.

20. No donation of land or appropriation of money shall be made by the State or any municipal corporation to or for the use of any society, association or corporation whatever.

21. This enumeration of rights and privileges shall not be construed to impair or deny others retained by the people.

ARTICLE II

RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE

1. Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years, who shall have been a resident of this State one year, and of the county in which he claims his vote five months, next before the election, shall be entitled to vote for all officers that now are, or hereafter may be, elective by the people; *provided*, that no person in the military, naval or marine service of the United States shall be considered a resi-

dent in this State, by being stationed in any garrison, barrack, or military or naval place or station within this State; and no pauper, idiot, insane person, or person convicted of a crime which now excludes him from being a witness unless pardoned or restored by law to the right of suffrage, shall enjoy the right of an elector; *and provided further*, that in time of war no elector in the actual military service of the State, or of the United States, in the army or navy thereof, shall be deprived of his vote by reason of his absence from such election district; and the legislature shall have power to provide the manner in which, and the time and place at which, such absent electors may vote, and for the return and canvass of their votes in the election districts in which they respectively reside.

2. The legislature may pass laws to deprive persons of the right of suffrage who shall be convicted of bribery.

ARTICLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POWERS OF GOVERNMENT

1. The powers of the government shall be divided into three distinct departments — the legislative, executive and judicial; and no person or persons belonging to, or constituting one of these departments, shall exercise any of the powers properly belonging to either of the others, except as herein expressly provided.

ARTICLE IV

LEGISLATIVE

Section I

1. The legislative power shall be vested in a senate and general assembly.

2. No person shall be a member of the senate who shall not have attained the age of thirty years, and have been a citizen and inhabitant of the State for four years, and of the county for which he shall be chosen one year, next before his election; and no person shall be a member of the general assembly who shall not have attained the age of twenty-one years, and have been a citizen and inhabitant of the State for two years, and of the county for which he shall be chosen one year next before his election; *provided*, that no person shall be eligible as a

member of either house of the legislature, who shall not be entitled to the right of suffrage.

3. Members of the senate and general assembly shall be elected yearly and every year, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November; and the two houses shall meet separately on the second Tuesday in January next after the said day of election, at which time of meeting the legislative year shall commence; but the time of holding such election may be altered by the legislature.

Section II

1. The senate shall be composed of one senator from each county in the State, elected by the legal voters of the counties, respectively, for three years.

2. As soon as the senate shall meet after the first election to be held in pursuance of this constitution, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the first year; of the second class at the expiration of the second year; and of the third class at the expiration of the third year, so that one class may be elected every year; and if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, the persons elected to supply such vacancies shall be elected for the unexpired terms only.

Section III

1. The general assembly shall be composed of members annually elected by the legal voters of the counties, respectively, who shall be apportioned among the said counties as nearly as may be according to the number of their inhabitants. The present apportionment shall continue until the next census of the United States shall have been taken, and an apportionment of members of the general assembly shall be made by the legislature at its first session after the next and every subsequent enumeration or census, and when made shall remain unaltered until another enumeration shall have been taken; *provided*, that each county shall at all times be entitled to one member; and the whole number of members shall never exceed sixty.

Section IV

1. Each house shall direct writs of election for supplying vacancies, occasioned by death, resignation, or otherwise; but if vacancies occur during the recess of the legislature, the writs may be issued by the governor, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law.

2. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business ; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

3. Each house shall choose its own officers, determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, may expel a member.

4. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same ; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

5. Neither house, during the session of the legislature, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

6. All bills and joint resolutions shall be read three times in each house, before the final passage thereof ; and no bill or joint resolution shall pass unless there be a majority of all the members of each body personally present and agreeing thereto ; and the yeas and nays of the members voting on such final passage shall be entered on the journal.

7. Members of the senate and general assembly shall receive annually the sum of five hundred dollars during the time for which they shall have been elected and while they shall hold their office, and no other allowance or emolument, directly or indirectly, for any purpose whatever. The president of the senate and the speaker of the house of assembly shall, in virtue of their offices, receive an additional compensation, equal to one third of their allowance as members.

8. Members of the senate and general assembly shall, in all cases except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the sitting of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same ; and for any speech or debate, in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Section V

1. No member of the senate or general assembly shall, during the time for which he was elected, be nominated or appointed by the governor, or by the legislature in joint meeting, to any civil office under the authority of this State which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time.

2. If any member of the senate or general assembly shall be elected to represent this State in the senate or house of representatives of the United States, and shall accept thereof, or shall accept of any office or appointment under the government of the United States, his seat in the legislature of this State shall thereby be vacated.

3. No justice of the supreme court, nor judge of any other court, sheriff, justice of the peace nor any person or persons possessed of any office of profit under the government of this State, shall be entitled to a seat either in the senate or in the general assembly; but, on being elected and taking his seat, his office shall be considered vacant; and no person holding any office of profit under the government of the United States shall be entitled to a seat in either house.

Section VI

1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of assembly; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but for appropriations made by law.

3. The credit of the State shall not be directly or indirectly loaned in any case.

4. The legislature shall not, in any manner, create any debt or debts, liability or liabilities, of the State which shall, singly or in the aggregate with any previous debts or liabilities, at any time exceed one hundred thousand dollars, except for purposes of war, or to repel invasion, or to suppress insurrection, unless the same shall be authorized by a law for some single object or work, to be distinctly specified therein; which law shall provide the ways and means, exclusive of loans, to pay the interest of such debt or liability as it falls due, and also to pay and discharge the principal of such debt or liability within thirty-five years from the time of the contracting thereof, and shall be irrevocable until such debt or liability, and the interest thereon, are fully paid and discharged; and no such law shall take effect until it shall, at a general election, have been submitted to the people, and have received the sanction of a majority of all the votes cast for and against it at such election; and all money to be raised by the authority of such law shall be applied only to the specific object stated therein, and to the payment of the debt thereby created. This section shall not be construed to refer to any money that has been, or may be, deposited with this State by the government of the United States.

Section VII

1. No divorce shall be granted by the legislature.
2. No lottery shall be authorized by the legislature or otherwise in this State, and no ticket in any lottery shall be bought or sold within this State, nor shall pool-selling, book-making or gambling of any kind be authorized or allowed within this State, nor shall any gambling device, practice or game of chance now prohibited by law be legalized, or the remedy, penalty or punishment now provided therefor be in any way diminished.
3. The legislature shall not pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or depriving a party of any remedy for enforcing a contract which existed when the contract was made.
4. To avoid improper influences which may result from intermixing in one and the same act such things as have no proper relation to each other, every law shall embrace but one object, and that shall be expressed in the title. No law shall be revived or amended by reference to its title only; but the act revived, or the section or sections amended shall be inserted at length. No general law shall embrace any provision of a private, special or local character. No act shall be passed which shall provide that any existing law, or any part thereof, shall be made or deemed a part of the act, or which shall enact that any existing law, or any part thereof, shall be applicable, except by inserting it in such act.
5. The laws of this State shall begin in the following style: "Be it enacted by the Senate and General Assembly of the State of New Jersey."
6. The fund for the support of free schools, and all money, stock and other property which may hereafter be appropriated for that purpose, or received into the treasury under the provision of any law heretofore passed to augment the said fund, shall be securely invested and remain a perpetual fund; and the income thereof, except so much as it may be judged expedient to apply to an increase of the capital, shall be annually appropriated to the support of public free schools, for the equal benefit of all the people of the State; and it shall not be competent for the legislature to borrow, appropriate or use the said fund, or any part thereof, for any other purpose, under any pretense whatever. The legislature shall provide for the maintenance and support of a thorough and efficient system of free public schools for the instruction of all the children in this State between the ages of five and eighteen years.

7. No private or special law shall be passed authorizing the sale of any lands belonging in whole or in part to a minor or minors, or other persons who may at the time be under any legal disability to act for themselves.

8. Individuals or private corporations shall not be authorized to take private property for public use, without just compensation first made to the owners.

9. No private, special or local bill shall be passed unless public notice of the intention to apply therefor, and of the general object thereof, shall have been previously given. The legislature, at the next session after the adoption hereof, and from time to time thereafter, shall prescribe the time and mode of giving such notice, the evidence thereof, and how such evidence shall be preserved.

10. The legislature may vest in the circuit courts, or courts of common pleas within the several counties of this State, chancery powers, so far as relates to the foreclosure of mortgages and sale of mortgaged premises.

11. The legislature shall not pass private, local or special laws in any of the following enumerated cases; that is to say:

Laying out, opening, altering and working roads or highways.

Vacating any road, town plot, street, alley or public grounds.

Regulating the internal affairs of towns and counties; appointing local offices or commissions to regulate municipal affairs.

Selecting, drawing, summoning or empaneling grand or petit jurors.

Creating, increasing or decreasing the percentage or allowance of public officers during the term for which said officers were elected or appointed.

Changing the law of descent.

Granting to any corporation, association or individual any exclusive privilege, immunity or franchise whatever.

Granting to any corporation, association or individual the right to lay down railroad tracks.

Providing for changes of venue in civil or criminal cases.

Providing for the management and support of free public schools.

The legislature shall pass general laws providing for the cases enumerated in this paragraph, and for all other cases which, in its judgment, may be provided for by general laws. The legislature shall pass no special act conferring corporate powers, but they shall pass general laws under which corporations may be organized and corporate powers of every nature obtained, subject, nevertheless, to repeal or alteration at the will of the legislature.

12. Property shall be assessed for taxes under general laws, and by uniform rules, according to its true value.

Section VIII

1. Members of the legislature shall, before they enter on the duties of their respective offices, take and subscribe the following oath or affirmation :

“I do solemnly swear [or affirm, as the case may be], that I will support the constitution of the United States and the constitution of the State of New Jersey, and that I will faithfully discharge the duties of senator [or member of the general assembly, as the case may be], according to the best of my ability.”

And members-elect of the senate or general assembly are hereby empowered to administer to each other the said oath or affirmation.

2. Every officer of the legislature shall, before he enters upon his duties, take and subscribe the following oath or affirmation: “I do solemnly promise and swear [or affirm] that I will faithfully, impartially and justly perform all the duties of the office of——, to the best of my ability and understanding; that I will carefully preserve all records, papers, writings or property intrusted to me for safe-keeping by virtue of my office, and make such disposition of the same as may be required by law.”

ARTICLE V

EXECUTIVE

1. The executive power shall be vested in a governor.

2. The governor shall be elected by the legal voters of this State. The person having the highest number of votes shall be the governor; but if two or more shall be equal and highest in votes, one of them shall be chosen governor by the vote of a majority of the members of both houses in joint meeting. Contested elections for the office of governor shall be determined in such manner as the legislature shall direct by law. When a governor is to be elected by the people, such election shall be held at the time when and at the places where the people shall respectively vote for members of the legislature.

3. The governor shall hold his office for three years, to commence on the third Tuesday of January next ensuing the election for governor by the people, and to end on the Monday preceding the third Tuesday of January, three years thereafter; and he shall be incapable of holding

that office for three years next after his term of service shall have expired ; and no appointment or nomination to office shall be made by the governor during the last week of his said term.

4. The governor shall be not less than thirty years of age, and shall have been for twenty years, at least, a citizen of the United States, and a resident of this State seven years next before his election, unless he shall have been absent during that time on the public business of the United States or of this State.

5. The governor shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall be neither increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected.

6. He shall be the commander-in-chief of all the military and naval forces of the State ; he shall have power to convene the legislature, or the senate alone, whenever in his opinion public necessity requires it ; he shall communicate by message to the legislature at the opening of each session, and at such other times as he may deem necessary, the condition of the State, and recommend such measures as he may deem expedient ; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and grant, under the great seal of the State, commissions to all such officers as shall be required to be commissioned.

7. Every bill which shall have passed both houses shall be presented to the governor ; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to the house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it ; if, after such reconsideration, a majority of the whole number of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved of by a majority of the whole number of that house, it shall become a law ; but in neither house shall the vote be taken on the same day on which the bill shall be returned to it ; and in all such cases, the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the governor, within five days (Sunday excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the legislature by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law. If any bill presented to the governor contain several items of appropriations of money, he may object to one or more of such items while approving of the other portions of the bill. In such

case he shall append to the bill, at the time of signing it, a statement of the items to which he objects, and the appropriation so objected to shall not take effect. If the legislature be in session he shall transmit to the house in which the bill originated, a copy of such statement, and the items objected to shall be separately reconsidered. If, on reconsideration, one or more of such items be approved by a majority of the members elected to each house, the same shall be a part of the law, notwithstanding the objections of the governor. All the provisions of this section in relation to bills not approved by the governor shall apply to cases in which he shall withhold his approval from any item or items contained in a bill appropriating money.

8. No member of congress, or person holding an office under the United States, or this State, shall exercise the office of governor; and in case the governor, or person administering the government, shall accept any office under the United States or this State, his office of governor shall thereupon be vacant. Nor shall he be elected by the legislature to any office under the government of this State or of the United States, during the term for which he shall have been elected governor.

9. The governor, or person administering the government, shall have power to suspend the collection of fines and forfeitures, and to grant reprieves, to extend until the expiration of a time not exceeding ninety days after conviction; but this power shall not extend to cases of impeachment.

10. The governor, or person administering the government, the chancellor, and the six judges of the court of errors and appeals, or a major part of them, of whom the governor, or a person administering the government, shall be one, may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant pardons, after conviction, in all cases except impeachment.

11. The governor and all other civil officers under this State shall be liable to impeachment for misdemeanor in office during their continuance in office, and for two years thereafter.

12. In case of the death, resignation or removal from office of the governor, the powers, duties and emoluments of the office shall devolve upon the president of the senate, and in case of his death, resignation or removal, then upon the speaker of the house of assembly, for the time being, until another governor shall be elected and qualified; but in such case another governor shall be chosen at the next election for members of the legislature, unless such death, resignation or removal shall occur within thirty days immediately preceding such next elec-

tion, in which case a governor shall be chosen at the second succeeding election for members of the legislature. When a vacancy happens, during the recess of the legislature, in any office which is to be filled by the governor and senate, or by the legislature in joint meeting, the governor shall fill such vacancy and the commission shall expire at the end of the next session of the legislature, unless a successor shall be sooner appointed; when a vacancy happens in the office of clerk or surrogate of any county, the governor shall fill such vacancy, and the commission shall expire when a successor is elected and qualified. No person who shall have been nominated to the senate by the governor for any office of trust or profit under the government of this State, and shall not have been confirmed before the recess of the legislature, shall be eligible for appointment to such office during the continuance of such recess.

13. In case of the impeachment of the governor, his absence from the State or inability to discharge the duties of his office, the powers, duties and emoluments of the office shall devolve upon the president of the senate; and in case of his death, resignation or removal, then upon the speaker of the house of assembly for the time being, until the governor, absent or impeached, shall return or be acquitted, or until the disqualification or inability shall cease, or until a new governor be elected and qualified.

14. In case of a vacancy in the office of governor from any other cause than those herein enumerated, or in case of the death of the governor-elect before he is qualified into office, the powers, duties and emoluments of the office shall devolve upon the president of the senate or speaker of the house of assembly, as above provided for, until a new governor be elected and qualified.

ARTICLE VI

JUDICIARY

Section I

1. The judicial power shall be vested in a court of errors and appeals in the last resort in all causes as heretofore; a court for the trial of impeachments; a court of chancery; a prerogative court; a supreme court; circuit courts, and such inferior courts as now exist, and as may be hereafter ordained and established by law; which inferior courts the legislature may alter or abolish, as the public good shall require.

Section II

1. The court of errors and appeals shall consist of the chancellor, the justices of the supreme court, and six judges, or a major part of them; which judges are to be appointed for six years.

2. Immediately after the court shall first assemble, the six judges shall arrange themselves in such manner that the seat of one of them shall be vacated every year, in order that thereafter one judge may be annually appointed.

3. Such of the six judges as shall attend the court shall receive, respectively, a *per diem* compensation, to be provided by law.

4. The secretary of state shall be the clerk of this court.

5. When an appeal from an order or decree shall be heard, the chancellor shall inform the court, in writing, of the reasons for his order or decree; but he shall not sit as a member, or have a voice in the hearing or final sentence.

6. When a writ of error shall be brought, no justice who has given a judicial opinion in the cause in favor of or against any error complained of, shall sit as a member, or have a voice on the hearing, or for its affirmance or reversal; but the reasons for such opinion shall be assigned to the court in writing.

Section III

1. The house of assembly shall have the sole power of impeaching, by a vote of a majority of all the members; and all impeachments shall be tried by the senate; the members, when sitting for that purpose, to be on oath or affirmation "truly and impartially to try and determine the charge in question according to evidence;" and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of all the members of the senate.

2. Any judicial officer impeached shall be suspended from exercising his office until his acquittal.

3. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend farther than to removal from office, and to disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, profit or trust under this State; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable to indictment, trial and punishment according to law.

4. The secretary of state shall be the clerk of this court.

Section IV

1. The court of chancery shall consist of a chancellor.

2. The chancellor shall be the ordinary or surrogate general, and judge of the prerogative court.

3. All persons aggrieved by any order, sentence or decree of the orphans' court, may appeal from the same, or from any part thereof, to the prerogative court; but such order, sentence or decree shall not be removed into the supreme court, or circuit court if the subject-matter thereof be within the jurisdiction of the orphans' court.

4. The secretary of state shall be the register of the prerogative court, and shall perform the duties required of him by law in that respect.

Section V

1. The supreme court shall consist of a chief justice and four associate justices. The numbers of associate justices may be increased or decreased by law, but shall never be less than two.

2. The circuit courts shall be held in every county of this State, by one or more of the justices of the supreme court, or a judge appointed for that purpose, and shall, in all cases within the county except in those of a criminal nature, have common law jurisdiction, concurrent with the supreme court; and any final judgment of a circuit court may be docketed in the supreme court, and shall operate as a judgment obtained in the supreme court from the time of such docketing.

3. Final judgments in any circuit court may be brought by writ of error into the supreme court, or directly into the court of errors and appeals.

Section VI

1. There shall be no more than five judges of the inferior court of common pleas in each of the counties in this State, after the terms of the judges of said court now in office shall terminate. One judge for each county shall be appointed every year, and no more, except to fill vacancies, which shall be for the unexpired term only.

2. The commissions for the first appointments of judges of said court shall bear date and take effect on the first day of April next; and all subsequent commissions for judges of said court shall bear date and take effect on the first day of April in every successive year, except commissions to fill vacancies, which shall bear date and take effect when issued.

Section VII

1. There may be elected under this constitution two, and not more than five, justices of the peace in each of the townships of the several

counties of this State, and in each of the wards, in cities that may vote in wards. When a township or ward contains two thousand inhabitants or less, it may have two justices; when it contains more than two thousand inhabitants, and not more than four thousand, it may have four justices; and when it contains more than four thousand inhabitants, it may have five justices; *provided*, that whenever any township not voting in wards contains more than seven thousand inhabitants, such township may have an additional justice for each additional three thousand inhabitants above four thousand.

2. The population of the townships in the several counties of the State and of the several wards shall be ascertained by the last preceding census of the United States, until the legislature shall provide, by law, some other mode of ascertaining it.

ARTICLE VII

APPOINTING POWER AND TENURE OF OFFICE

Section I

MILITIA OFFICERS

1. The legislature shall provide by law for enrolling, organizing and arming the militia.

2. Captains, subalterns and non-commissioned officers shall be elected by the members of their respective companies.

3. Field officers of regiments, independent battalions and squadrons shall be elected by the commissioned officers of their respective regiments, battalions or squadrons.

4. Brigadier-generals shall be elected by the field officers of their respective brigades.

5. Major-generals, the adjutant-general and quartermaster-general shall be nominated by the governor, and appointed by him, with the advice and consent of the senate.

6. The legislature shall provide, by law, the time and manner of electing militia officers, and of certifying their elections to the governor, who shall grant their commissions, and determine their rank, when not determined by law; and no commissioned officer shall be removed from office but by the sentence of a court-martial, pursuant to law.

7. In case the electors of subalterns, captains or field officers shall refuse or neglect to make such elections, the governor shall have

power to appoint such officers, and to fill all vacancies caused by such refusal or neglect.

8. Brigade inspectors shall be chosen by the field officers of their respective brigades.

9. The governor shall appoint all militia officers whose appointment is not otherwise provided for in this constitution.

10. Major-generals, brigadier-generals and commanding officers of regiments, independent battalions and squadrons shall appoint the staff officers of their divisions, brigades, regiments, independent battalions and squadrons, respectively.

Section II

CIVIL OFFICERS

1. Justices of the supreme court, chancellor, judges of the court of errors and appeals and judges of the inferior court of common pleas shall be nominated by the governor, and appointed by him, with the advice and consent of the senate.

The justices of the supreme court and chancellor shall hold their offices for the term of seven years; shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during the term of their appointments; and they shall hold no other office under the government of this State or of the United States.

2. Judges of the courts of common pleas shall be appointed by the senate and general assembly, in joint meeting.

They shall hold their offices for five years; but when appointed to fill vacancies, they shall hold for the unexpired term only.

3. The state treasurer and comptroller shall be appointed by the senate and general assembly, in joint meeting.

They shall hold their offices for three years, and until their successors shall be qualified into office.

4. The attorney-general, prosecutors of the pleas, clerk of the supreme court, clerk of the court of chancery, secretary of state and the keeper of the state prison shall be nominated by the governor, and appointed by him, with the advice and consent of the senate.

They shall hold their offices for five years.

5. The law reporter shall be appointed by the justices of the supreme court, or a majority of them; and the chancery reporter shall be appointed by the chancellor.

They shall hold their offices for five years.

6. Clerks and surrogates of counties shall be elected by the people of their respective counties, at the annual elections for members of the general assembly.

They shall hold their offices for five years.

7. Sheriffs and coroners shall be elected by the people of their respective counties, at the elections for members of the general assembly, and they shall hold their offices for three years, after which three years must elapse before they can be again capable of serving. Sheriffs shall annually renew their bonds.

8. Justices of the peace shall be elected by ballot at the annual meetings of the townships in the several counties of the State, and of the wards in cities that may vote in wards, in such manner and under such regulations as may be hereafter provided by law.

They shall be commissioned for the county, and their commissions shall bear date and take effect on the first day of May next after their election.

They shall hold their offices for five years; but when elected to fill vacancies, they shall hold for the unexpired term only; *provided*, that the commission of any justice of the peace shall become vacant upon his ceasing to reside in the township in which he was elected.

The first election for justices of the peace shall take place at the next annual town-meetings of the townships in the several counties of the State, and of the wards in cities that may vote in wards.

9. All other officers, whose appointments are not otherwise provided for by law, shall be nominated by the governor, and appointed by him, with the advice and consent of the senate; and shall hold their offices for the time prescribed by law.

10. All civil officers elected or appointed pursuant to the provisions of this constitution, shall be commissioned by the governor.

11. The term of office of all officers elected or appointed, pursuant to the provisions of this constitution, except when herein otherwise directed, shall commence on the day of the date of their respective commissions; but no commission for any office shall bear date prior to the expiration of the term of the incumbent of said office.

ARTICLE VIII

GENERAL PROVISIONS

1. The secretary of state shall be *ex officio* an auditor of the accounts of the treasurer, and as such, it shall be his duty to assist the legislature

in the annual examination and settlement of said accounts, until otherwise provided by law.

2. The seal of the State shall be kept by the governor, or person administering the government, and used by him officially, and shall be called the great seal of the State of New Jersey.

3. All grants and commissions shall be in the name and by the authority of the State of New Jersey, sealed with the great seal, signed by the governor, or person administering the government, and countersigned by the secretary of state, and it shall run thus: "The State of New Jersey, to —, greeting." All writs shall be in the name of the State; and all indictments shall conclude in the following manner, viz., "against the peace of this State, the government and dignity of the same."

4. This constitution shall take effect and go into operation on the second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-four.

ARTICLE IX

AMENDMENTS

Any specific amendment or amendments to the constitution may be proposed in the senate or general assembly, and if the same shall be agreed to by a majority of the members elected to each of the two houses, such proposed amendment or amendments shall be entered on their journals, with the yeas and nays taken thereon, and referred to the legislature then next to be chosen, and shall be published for three months previous to making such choice, in at least one newspaper of each county, if any be published therein; and if in the legislature next chosen as aforesaid, such proposed amendment or amendments, or any of them, shall be agreed to by a majority of all the members elected to each house, then it shall be the duty of the legislature to submit such proposed amendment or amendments, or such of them as may have been agreed to as aforesaid by the two legislatures, to the people, in such manner and at such time, at least four months after the adjournment of the legislature, as the legislature shall prescribe; and if the people at a special election to be held for that purpose only, shall approve and ratify such amendment or amendments or any of them, by a majority of the electors qualified to vote for members of the legislature voting thereon, such amendment or amendments, so approved and ratified shall become part of the constitution; *provided*, that *it* more than one amendment be

submitted, they shall be submitted in such manner and form that the people may vote for or against each amendment separately and distinctly; but no amendment or amendments shall be submitted to the people by the legislature oftener than once in five years.

ARTICLE X

SCHEDULE

That no inconvenience may arise from the change in the constitution of this State, and in order to carry the same into complete operation, it is hereby declared and ordained, that —

1. The common law and the statute laws now in force, not repugnant to this constitution, shall remain in force until they expire by their own limitation, or be altered or repealed by the legislature; and all writs, actions, causes of action, prosecutions, contracts, claims and rights of individuals and of bodies corporate, and of the State, and all charters of incorporation, shall continue, and all indictments which shall have been found, or which may hereafter be found, for any crime or offense committed before the adoption of this constitution, may be proceeded upon as if no change had taken place. The several courts of law and equity, except as herein otherwise provided, shall continue with the like powers and jurisdiction as if this constitution had not been adopted.

2. All officers now filling any office or appointment shall continue in the exercise of the duties thereof, according to their respective commissions or appointments, unless by this constitution it is otherwise directed.

3. The present governor, chancellor and ordinary or surrogate-general and treasurer shall continue in office until successors elected or appointed under this constitution shall be sworn or affirmed into office.

4. In case of the death, resignation or disability of the present governor, the person who may be vice-president of council at the time of the adoption of this constitution shall continue in office and administer the government until a governor shall have been elected and sworn or affirmed into office under this constitution.

5. The present governor, or in case of his death or inability to act, the vice-president of council, together with the present members of the legislative council and secretary of state, shall constitute a board of state canvassers, in the manner now provided by law, for the purpose of ascertaining and declaring the result of the next ensuing election for governor, members of the house of representatives, and electors of president and vice-president.

6. The returns of the votes for governor, at the said next ensuing election, shall be transmitted to the secretary of state, the votes counted, and the election declared in the manner now provided by law in the case of the election of electors of president and vice-president.

7. The election of clerks and surrogates, in those counties where the term of office of the present incumbent shall expire previous to the general election of eighteen hundred and forty-five, shall be held at the general election next ensuing the adoption of this constitution; the result of which election shall be ascertained in the manner now provided by law for the election of sheriffs.

8. The elections for the year eighteen hundred and forty-four shall take place as now provided by law.

9. It shall be the duty of the governor to fill all vacancies in office happening between the adoption of this constitution and the first session of the senate, and not otherwise provided for, and the commissions shall expire at the end of the first session of the senate, or when successors shall be elected or appointed and qualified.

10. The restriction of the pay of members of the legislature after forty days from the commencement of the session, shall not be applied to the first legislature convened under this constitution.

11. Clerks of counties shall be clerks of the inferior courts of common pleas and quarter sessions of the several counties, and perform the duties, and be subject to the regulations now required of them by law until otherwise ordained by the legislature.

12. The legislature shall pass all laws necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this constitution.

IV. FORMATION OF COUNTIES

COUNTY SEAT	COUNTY SEAT
Salem, 1675 . Salem	Cumberland, 1748, Bridgeton
Gloucester, 1677, Woodbury	Sussex, 1753 . Newton
Bergen, 1682 . Hackensack	Warren, 1824 . Belvidere
Middlesex, 1682, New Brunswick	Passaic, 1837 . Paterson
Essex, 1682 . Newark	Atlantic, 1837 . Mays Landing
Monmouth, 1682, Freehold	Mercer, 1838 . Trenton
Somerset, 1688, Somerville	Hudson, 1840 . Jersey City
Cape May, 1692, Cape May Court House	Camden, 1844 . Camden
Burlington, 1694, Mount Holly	Ocean, 1850 . . Toms River
Hunterdon, 1714, Flemington	Union, 1857 . . Elizabeth
Morris, 1739 . Morristown	

V. ENGLISH GOVERNORS OF THE PROVINCE OF NEW JERSEY

Philip Carteret . .	1664-1676	
Edmund Andros . .	1674-1676	(New York and New Jersey)

EAST JERSEY

Philip Carteret . .	1676-1682	
Robert Barclay . .	1682-1690	(as proprietary governor)
Thomas Rudyard . .	1682-1683	(deputy)
Gawen Laurie . . .	1683-1686	(deputy)
Lord Neil Campbell . .	1686-1687	(deputy)
Andrew Hamilton . .	1687-1688	(deputy)
Edmund Andros . .	1688-1689	(New York and New Jersey)
John Tatham . . .	1690	(Rejected)
Colonel Joseph Dudley,	1691	(Rejected)
Andrew Hamilton . .	1692-1697	
Jeremiah Basse . .	1698-1699	(Rejected)
Andrew Bowne . . .	1699	(deputy, rejected)
Andrew Hamilton . .	1699-1702	

WEST JERSEY

Board of Commissioners,	1676-1679
Edward Byllinge .	1679-1687
Samuel Jennings .	1679-1684 (deputy)
Thomas Olive . .	1684-1685 (deputy)
John Skeine . . .	1685-1687
Daniel Coxe . . .	1687-1690
Edward Hunloke .	1690 (deputy)
W. J. Society of Proprietors,	1691
Andrew Hamilton .	1692-1697
Jeremiah Basse . .	1699-1702 (East and West Jersey)

AFTER REUNION OF THE PROVINCES

Lord Cornbury . . :	1702-1708 (New York and New Jersey)
Lord Lovelace . . .	1708-1709 (New York and New Jersey)
Richard Ingoldsby .	1709-1710 (Lieut.-Governor)
Robert Hunter . . .	1710-1719
William Burnet . . .	1720-1728
John Montgomerie .	1728-1731
Lewis Morris . . .	1731-1732 (President of Council)
William Cosby . . .	1732-1736
John Anderson . . .	1736 (President of Council)
John Hamilton . . .	1736-1738 (President of Council)
Lewis Morris . . .	1738-1746 (Executive separated from New York)
John Hamilton . . .	1746 (President of Council)
John Reading . . .	1746-1747 (President of Council)
Jonathan Belcher .	1747-1757
John Reading . . .	1757-1758 (President of Council)
Francis Bernard . .	1758-1760
Thomas Boone . . .	1760-1761
Josiah Hardy . . .	1761-1762
William Franklin . .	1762-1776

VI. GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION

William Livingston, 1776-1790	Federalist
William Paterson, 1790-1793	Federalist
Richard Howell, 1793-1801	Federalist
Joseph Bloomfield, 1801-1802	Democrat
John Lambert, 1802-1803 (President)	Democrat

Joseph Bloomfield, 1803-1812	Democrat
Aaron Ogden, 1812-1813	Federalist
William S. Pennington, 1813-1815	Democrat
Mahlon Dickerson, 1815-1817	Democrat
Isaac H. Williamson, 1817-1829	Federalist
Peter D. Vroom, Jr., 1829-1831	Democrat
Samuel L. Southard, 1832-1833	Whig
Elias P. Seeley, 1833	Whig
Peter D. Vroom, 1833-1836	Democrat
Philemon Dickerson, 1836-1837	Democrat
William Pennington, 1837-1843	Whig
Daniel Haines, 1843-1845	Democrat
Charles C. Stratton, 1845-1848	Whig
Daniel Haines, 1848-1851	Democrat
George F. Fort, 1851-1854	Democrat
Rodman M. Price, 1854-1857	Democrat
William A. Newell, 1857-1860	Republican
Charles S. Olden, 1860-1863	Republican
Joel Parker, 1863-1866	Democrat
Marcus L. Ward, 1866-1869	Republican
Theodore F. Randolph, 1869-1872	Democrat
Joel Parker, 1872-1875	Democrat
Joseph D. Bedle, 1875-1878	Democrat
George B. McClellan, 1878-1881	Democrat
George C. Ludlow, 1881-1884	Democrat
Leon Abbett, 1884-1887	Democrat
Robert S. Green, 1887-1890	Democrat
Leon Abbett, 1890-1893	Democrat
George T. Werts, 1893-1896	Democrat
John W. Griggs, 1896-1898	Republican
Foster M. Voorhees, 1898-1902	Republican
Franklin Murphy, 1902-1905	Republican
Edward C. Stokes, 1905-1908	Republican
J. Franklin Fort, 1908-1911	Republican
Woodrow Wilson, 1911 —	Democrat

VII. UNITED STATES SENATORS FROM 1789 TO THE PRESENT TIME

Jonathan Elmer, March 4, 1789, to March 3, 1791.

William Paterson, March 4, 1789, to November 23, 1790.

Philemon Dickerson, November 23, 1790, to March 3, 1793.

John Rutherford, March 4, 1791, to December 5, 1798.

- Frederick Frelinghuysen, March 4, 1793, to November 12, 1796.
 Richard Stockton, November 12, 1796, to March 3, 1799.
 Franklin Davenport, December 5, 1798, to February 14, 1799.
 James Schureman, February 14, 1799, to February 26, 1801.
 Jonathan Dayton, March 4, 1799, to March 3, 1805.
 Aaron Ogden, February 26, 1801, to March 3, 1803.
 John Condit, September 1, 1803, to March 3, 1809.
 Aaron Kitchell, March 4, 1805, to March 21, 1809.
 John Lambert, March 4, 1809, to March 3, 1815.
 John Condit, March 21, 1809, to March 3, 1817.
 James Jefferson Wilson, March 4, 1815, to January 26, 1821.
 Mahlon Dickerson, March 4, 1817, to March 3, 1829.
 Samuel L. Southard, January 26, 1821, to November 12, 1823.
 Joseph McIlvaine, November 12, 1823, to August 16, 1826.
 Ephraim Bateman, November 10, 1826, to January 30, 1829.
 Theodore Frelinghuysen, March 4, 1829, to March 3, 1835.
 Mahlon Dickerson, January 30, 1829, to March 3, 1833.
 Samuel L. Southard, March 4, 1833, to June 26, 1842.
 Garret D. Wall, March 4, 1835, to March 3, 1841.
 Jacob W. Miller, March 4, 1841, to March 3, 1853.
 William L. Dayton, July 2, 1842, to March 3, 1851.
 Robert F. Stockton, March 4, 1851, to February 11, 1853.
 William Wright, March 4, 1853, to March 3, 1859.
 John R. Thompson, February 11, 1853, to December, 1862 (died).
 Richard S. Field, December 12, 1862, to January 13, 1863 (vacancy).
 John C. Ten Eyck, March 17, 1859, to March 3, 1865.
 James W. Wall, January 14, 1863, to March 3, 1863 (vacancy).
 William Wright, March 4, 1863, to November, 1866.
 F. T. Frelinghuysen, November, 1866, to March 3, 1869.
 John P. Stockton, March 4, 1865, to March 27, 1866.
 Alexander G. Cattell, March 27, 1866, to March 3, 1871.
 John P. Stockton, March 4, 1869, to March 3, 1875.
 F. T. Frelinghuysen, March 4, 1871, to March 3, 1877.
 T. F. Randolph, March 4, 1875, to March 3, 1881.
 John R. McPherson, March 4, 1877, to March 3, 1895.
 William J. Sewell, March 4, 1881, to March 3, 1887.
 Rufus Blodgett, March 4, 1887, to March 3, 1893.
 James Smith, Jr., March 4, 1893, to March 3, 1899.
 William J. Sewell, March 4, 1895, to December 26, 1901.
 John Kean, March 4, 1899, to ——.
- John F. Dryden, February 4, 1902, to March 3, 1907.
 Frank O. Briggs, March 4, 1907, to March 3, 1913.
 James E. Martine, March 4, 1911, to ——.

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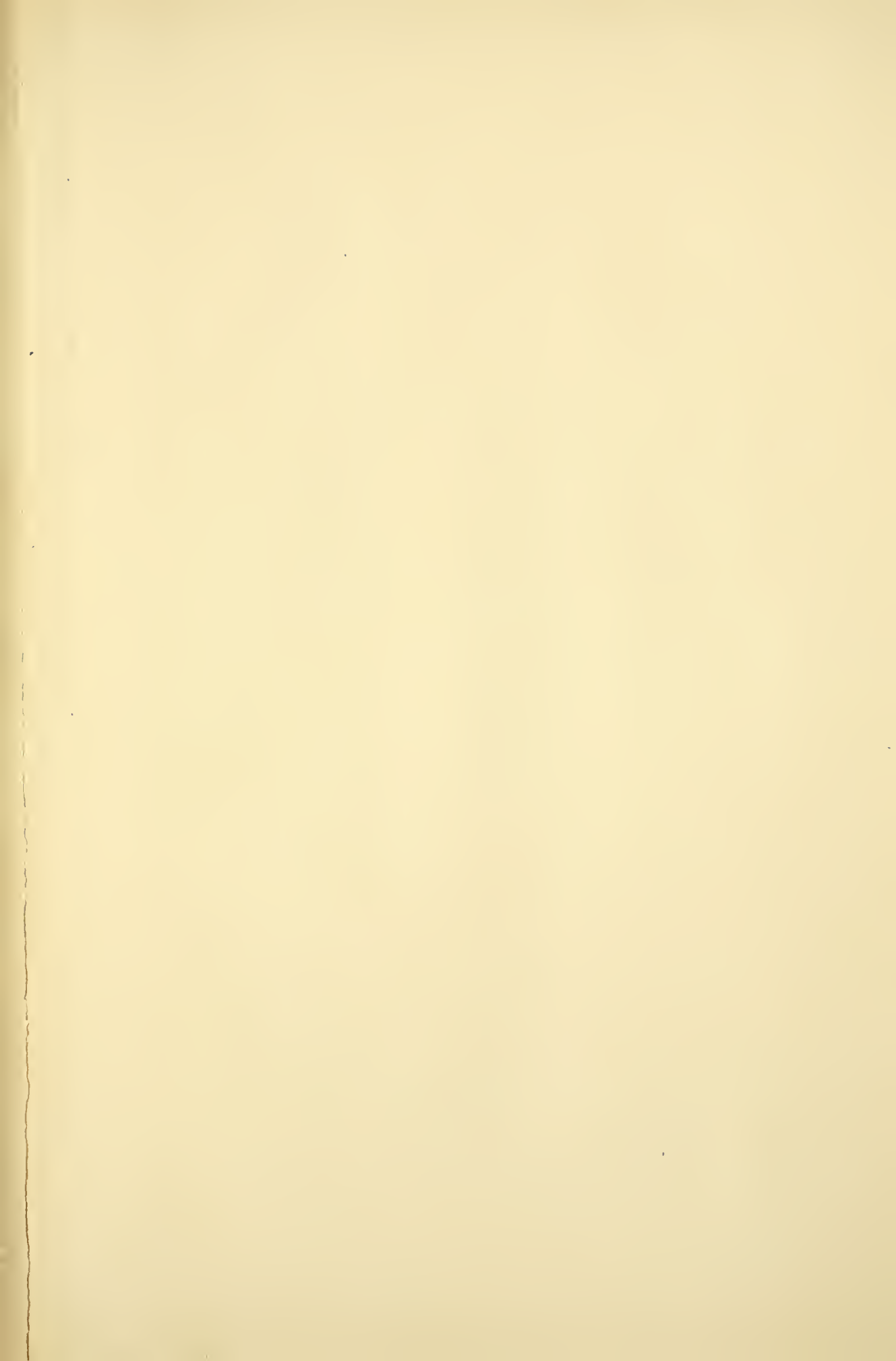
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